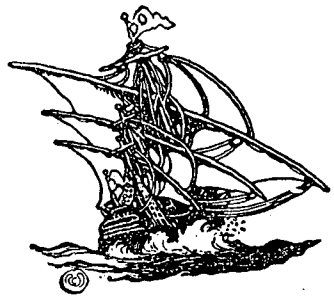
THE SURVEY

MIDMONTHLY

MARCH 15, 1927



Lillian D. Wald

Settler and Trail-Blazer

Soft Coal and Hard Facts

By C. B. Fowler

Making Slums

Seeing Red in Canton

What Is a Social Work Executive?

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Ten Years After

WHAT have we learned since the United States went into the Great War in April, 1917?

In The Graphic for April a group of writers will take a look, backward and forward, at war and at a peace, at the forces and states of mind that make for one or the other.

Charles A. Beard discusses the great waves of public opinion, the forces pressing on President Wilson, the strain and stress of the time when the United States went into the Great War. A foretaste of what other historians will be writing fifty years hence.

A. Hamilton Gibbs discusses moral preparedness for peace, a vividly human document by an Englishman who spent four years in the trenches.

General Peter E. Traub, U. S. Army, writes from the military man's point of view.

Charles A. Nagel, formerly Secretary of Commerce, tells briefly of how three wars have closely touched his life.

Prof. Joseph P. Chamberlain of Columbia University writes of the situation of the United States in regard to the European treaties to which it is not a party.

Prof. Parker Moon of Columbia University discusses imperialism on the part of the United States.

Prof. Herbert Adolphus Miller of Ohio State University gives a remarkable interpretation of his recent trip East of Western Europe and the quick understanding and sympathy for the United States to be found among the peoples of the Balkan States, Asia Minor and Russia.

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The Gist of It

WITH their women-folk and children, the bituminous coal miners number a million and a half souls who will be involved in the coal strike which seems inevitable a fortnight after this issue of The Survey is delivered to subscribers. Back of the wage dispute is a geological situation moving with almost the crushing inevitability of a glacier. C. B. FOWLER, who describes it on page 773, worked in the soft coal mines of Indiana as a boy. He knows the central competitive field at first hand and as a member of the Economics Department of New York University.

GRACE HUTCHINS, traveling in China, brings to bear on the troubled situation eyes sharpened by her journalistic experience as a member of the staff of The World Tomorrow. Page 775.

WHY Mount Holyoke gave her an LL.D., why three medals have been awarded her for constructive service for the common good, why more than these things she cherishes the dictum of a group of pushcart men who came to her in their troubles because "she was as good as any fish peddler," are brought out in a sketch of Lillian D. Wald on page 777: the occasion, a birthday way-mark in a robust and radiant life. The Survey is indebted to the New York Times for its courtesy in permitting us to reprint. And it is to be said the appreciation applies not only to the headworker of the Nurses' Settlement, as it is generally called, but to all those, in and out of Henry Street, who have worked shoulder to shoulder with her.

MICHAEL M. DAVIS is the executive secretary of the Committee on Dispensary Development in New York City and DR. ANNA MANN RICHARDSON has been until recently a member of the staff of that same organization. Page 786.

DR. C. F. WILINSKY is deputy commissioner, Child Hygiene Division, Department of Health, of Boston, Mass., and the first director of the health units he describes. Page 790.

ROBERT W. BRUÈRE is an associate editor of The Survey and secretary on industrial relations of the J. C. Penney Foundation. Page 792.

LILLIAN SYMES is the executive secretary of the Consumers' League of New York. Page 794.

GEDDES SMITH is an associate editor of The Survey and director of publications of the Child Health Demonstration Committee. Page 797.

NELS ANDERSON has settled down as head worker of Whittier House, Jersey City, after long experience of cities and their slums. His book on urban sociology is to be published this spring by Knopf. Page 799.

JEANNETTE REGENSBURG is a psychologist at the Bureau of Children's Guidance in New York City and a teacher at the New York School of Social Work. Page 802.

LAURA B. EVERETT sends this account of a social service education project from Oakland, California, where she is a high school teacher. Page 804.

DOUGLASS ORR, an undergraduate at Swarthmore College, is head of the standing committee on college curriculums of the National Student Federation, which he describes on page 806.

STUART A. QUEEN is professor of sociology at the University of Kansas and author of Social Pathology. Page 808.

MILDRED MUDGETT is an assistant professor of sociology at the University of Minnesota. This article is part of a study of pre-school children in Central Europe made last year while Mrs. Mudgett was holding a fellowship from the Social Science Research Council. Page 809.

CHAVIS KAYE is the nom de plume of an authentic social worker who swears that every detail of her surprising story is taken from a single file card of a certain mothers' pension agency. Page 811.

ROBERT W. KELSO, executive secretary of the Boston Council of Social Agencies, begins in this issue a discussion of what—and perhaps why—is a social work executive which will run through three Midmonthly issues. Page 820.

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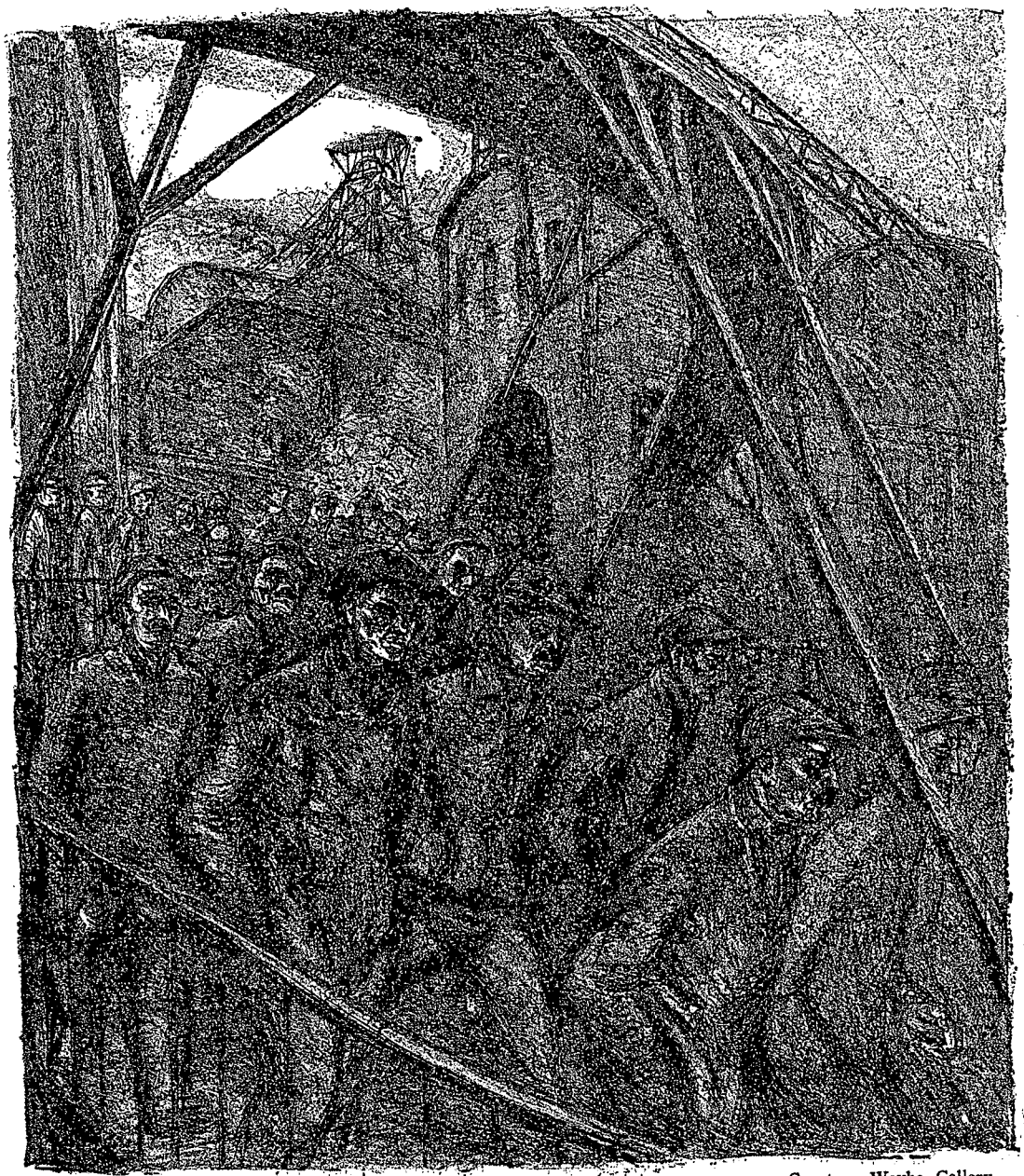

Drawing by Willi Borutta

Courtesy Weyhe Gallery

If a bituminous coal strike comes on April 1, as now seems inevitable, its greatest initial hardships will be visited upon union miners who, with their families number some million and a half human beings, upon some thousands of independent operators and upon the small communities where their mines are located

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Soft Coal and Hard Facts

The Human Consequences of a Geological Shift in Mining and Vertical Combinations in Industry

By C. B. FOWLER

WHEN on April 1, 1924, largely under pressure from Washington, the bituminous coal operators of the Central Competitive Field and the United Mine Workers of America entered upon the three-year Jacksonville agreement, every reasonably well-informed person knew that they had signed nothing more than a truce, and that unless they or Washington did something unusual, April 1, 1927, would again find them at the brink of a lockout or strike. For three years the bituminous coal industry has moved with the fatal certainty of a glacier toward the edge of this catastrophe. Neither the operators nor the miners nor the government at Washington, notwithstanding the urgent recommendations of the late United States Coal Commission, has revealed any statesmanlike capacity for dealing with the situation clearly forecast three years ago. The probable reason for this hands-off attitude in Washington is that an essentially geological shift has taken place in bituminous production which makes the greatest coal consumers and the producers of the great bulk of bituminous tonnage fearless of the consequences of a strike. If a strike results from the failure of the recent negotiations between operators and unionized miners at Miami, Florida, its chief immediate menace would be to the life of the miners' union.

The shift in bituminous production has been on a scale comparable to the westward shift in agricultural production when the Homestead Act opened up the great corn and wheat belts to settlement and the transcontinental railroads brought them within reach of the markets. During the nineteenth century and the first twenty-two years of the twentieth, bituminous coal-mining centered in Illinois, Indiana, Ohio and Western Pennsylvania, which stoked the furnaces of our infant industries. Now, practically all of the coal that can be mined at low cost has been skimmed from these older fields. This does not mean that the veins nearest the surface have been exhausted. A seven-foot vein 300 feet under ground may be cheaper to mine than a four-foot or thirty-inch vein 150 feet down. But the thick veins of superior quality, having the best roofs and bottoms and freest from underground water, have been worked to the point where increasing costs of production have placed them at a competitive disadvantage with respect to the newer fields such as those of West Virginia and eastern Kentucky.

In these newer fields, coal at moderate depths is abundant. Many thick seams crop out on hillsides and along banks of streams, which make their mining easy. Many lie so near the surface that even if shafts must be sunk they are relatively inexpensive. Moreover, the newer fields contain a relatively high percentage of what is known as semi-bituminous, low volatile, smokeless coal, which is in great demand not only for steam-raising but for domestic use.

UP to the War, these newer fields remained largely in the back-eddies of the westward migration. The first great trunk railroads had pushed toward the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific without much regard to the coal fields of West Virginia, Kentucky and Tennessee. But the War stimulated a great advance of transportation throughout the newer fields. Since 1920 particularly many branch as well as trunk lines have tapped them and brought them within easy reach of the markets. Moreover, the operators in the older fields contend that the Interstate Commerce Commission in its effort to equalize competition

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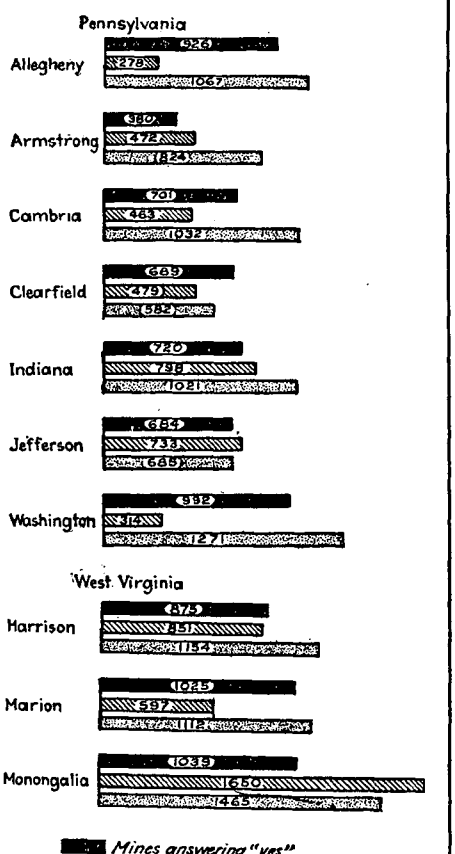
has tended to establish freight-rates that discriminate in favor of the newer fields.

All these developments have produced the shift almost geological in dimension, to which I have referred, a shift which, like the earlier agricultural shift, has had dramatic human consequences. The older fields of Illinois, Indiana, Ohio and western Pennsylvania have been solidly unionized since 1898. The advantages accruing from better transportation particularly, enabled the organized miners and operators to extend their jurisdiction along the great trunk lines into what are described by the union as the outlying fields of northern West Virginia, western Kentucky, Michigan, Missouri, Iowa, Kansas, Texas, Arkansas, Oklahoma, Montana, Wyoming and Washington. Up to 1921 Illinois, Indiana, Ohio and western Pennsylvania employed about two-fifths of the bituminous miners of the country and produced 38 per cent of the tonnage, while the outlying districts produced 21 per cent of the bituminous output, making the total production of these unionized fields about 60 per cent of the nation's tonnage. In that year the non-unionized newer fields in southern West Virginia, eastern Kentucky, Alabama and Tennessee were fighting to dominate the market. During the great strike of 1922, they discovered that they could produce 60 per cent of the nation's average weekly consumption. They saw that the great shift was on and playing into their hands. They pressed their advantage. By 1925 they were producing 65 per cent of the nation's bituminous coal. In the process, for reasons which I shall presently indicate, they won to their side a number of the largest producers who had formerly operated under agreement with the miners' union. As a result of this shift, the operators of the older fields, and more especially of the Central Competitive Field, and the United Mine Workers of America, who have been conferring in Miami, face a critical situation.

For this situation the skimming of the best veins in the older fields and the extension of transportation facilities have not been alone responsible. During recent years there has been a strong tendency toward the building of vertical combinations in American industry. One great industry after another has reached out to control the sources of its own raw material. This movement got under way about the time the newer non-union fields were coming into use. It was natural that these industrial corporations should buy up comparatively cheap coal lines in the newer fields and set up their own mining subsidiaries there, rather than in the older fields, where population was denser and land values and tax-rates correspondingly higher. Consumer-owned mines, especially where the consumer-owner is a public utility like an electric or gas company, are able to operate more steadily and therefore at a lower overhead cost than independent mines with a fluctuating market. They can also afford to operate their mines at a lower marginal profit, precisely because they themselves are the principal consumers of the output.

These vertical combinations, dominated as they are by the directors of the latest type of mechanized industries, have been the leaders in pushing mechanization into the bituminous mines, where mechanization under the old order had made extremely slow progress. Not only because their manufacturing experience has made them masters of the newer technique but because they are able to command large blocks of capital, they have been able to introduce machinery beyond the capital resources of the independent bituminous operators. One cannot finger through the coal-trade journals without being impressed by the increasing amount of space devoted to the editorial and advertising display of new coal-mining machinery, electrical cutting and loading machines, conveyers, electrical drills—an array of new inventions for revolutionizing the methods of mining coal. While the miners' union has officially encouraged the introduction of new machinery, the strength of the old craft tradition has tended to make the older union miners use the strength of their organization to resist innovations. However this may be, it is certain that the great vertical combinations find it easier to introduce their new techniques in unorganized fields where obedience is the price of a job. Invention, coupled with the financial power of vertical combinations, has given fresh impetus to the shift to the newer fields.

Confronted by this complex and dynamic development, the United Mine Workers and their allies among the operators in the older fields have held to a surprisingly rigid and unimaginative position. No one who has followed the history of the bituminous coal industry can fail to recognize the extraordinary advantages that have accrued, not only to the industry but to the country at large, through the work of the miners' union. The report of the United States Coal Commission bears abundant testimony to this fact. In the long run it is clear from the record that the best interests of all parties will be served by organized cooperation between the miners and the managements of (*Continued on page* 826)



COMPARATIVE OUTPUT PER MAN EMPLOYED, 1925

In mines whose owners stated that they were not under contract with the union the output per man was generally greater in 1925, indicating steadier working time. In mines which changed from a contract to a non-contract basis the output was generally smaller than in either of the other two classes of mines in the same county. The average figures for each group are inserted in the bars. They are calculated by dividing the tons produced by the average number of men employed.—From Coal Age

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Seeing Red in Canton

By GRACE HUTCHINS

TO go from the philosopher's study in Peking through the match factories of Shanghai to the parades of organized workers in Canton is to traverse the main currents of Chinese life today. Yet the greater number of foreigners out here, the diplomatic corps, the business men, and many of the missionaries seem marooned on an island of the past and are still persistently looking backward or closing their eyes entirely to the irresistible streams of life swirling around and beyond their little strongholds.

A group of more enlightened foreigners in China, Y.M. and Y.W.C.A. secretaries, leaders in the National Christian Council, and a few professors in mission colleges—some Americans and a few British—understand the reasons for the Chinese nationalist movement and are breaking the violence of impact between new China and the western powers. Many individuals in this group have openly declared their willingness to forego all special privileges and protection accorded them by the extraterritorial system and, if they stay on in China, to live under Chinese laws. Germans and Austrians have lived under Chinese law since 1921 and Russians since 1924.

The "redness" of Canton, however, is a stumbling block. With only two exceptions, all the newspapers printed in English in China label the Nationalist armies "Reds" and "Bolshevists," and describe the efforts of the Northern armies (assisted by White Russians in Shantung) as an "anti-Bolshevist campaign." The daily papers are advertised on the Hongkong streets under the captions "Redder Bolshevism," "Red Menace in Canton," "Anti-Red Armies Advance." Correspondents of the English newspapers, writing from Canton, set forth the excesses of the leftist labor unions, and the items are given under scare headlines. Today's Hongkong morning paper, for instance, carries a story: "Confiscation—Canton Waterworks Threatened—Company Protests." But the last paragraph of the story reads: "The city government decided today to postpone the matter of taking over the control of the waterworks so as to avoid misunderstanding of the people that such action is Communism, which will affect seriously the present campaign to sell the shares of the Whampoa Port Development Company."

THE Constitutionalist, a pamphlet service published by a group of British business men in Shanghai calling themselves the Constitutional Defense League, claims to protect China against the advance of Russian doctrines and is trying to prove that "Russia desires to subject the Chinese to red rule." Even some comparative liberal missionaries at Canton Christian College, since the strike of the University Workers' Union three weeks ago, are in daily fear that the government means to confiscate their college property—three hundred acres of valuable land, agricultural experiment station, and modern buildings. One mission hospital in which the workers were not union members, was closed by the government when the anti-foreign boycott began and a foreign physician of that mission told us the government officials were "a pack of criminals and rascals."

Are these labels justified? Is the Russian form of socialism establishing itself in China? Are the red advisers shaping the future of this country to the exclusion of other foreign powers? Is there nothing but confusion ahead for the next generation in China?

WE have interviewed seventy-eight Chinese and foreign leaders in Tientsin, Peking, Hankow, Wuchang, Nanking, Shanghai and Canton, during the past two months and have had casual talks with as many more. The foreigners have represented all shades of opinion, from the anti-Chinese British business man who would send in the imperial army and navy to "clean up China" this winter, to the Russian adviser in the Cantonese government, or the American Y.M.C.A. secretary who risked his own position and lost some of his foreign friends by defending the Chinese students in Shanghai after the May 30 tragedy. The Chinese have been from every group in society, merchants and labor leaders, lawyers and government officials, students and professors, editors and army officers, workers and employers, ladies of leisure and professional women, Christians and non-Christians. Yet without exception every Chinese man or woman has been nationalist in sympathy, believing that China should have tariff autonomy, that the unequal treaties should be abolished, and the complete sovereignty of China restored. Of the Kuomintang, or the Nationalist People's Party in control of the Cantonese government, each Chinese whether he lived in northern, central or southern China, has used almost exactly the same words: "The Kuomintang is the only party that has a plan, a purpose, a program for the reconstruction of China."

The events of these last few days while we have been here in Canton illustrate the program of this Nationalist government. Six able leaders left the city last week to visit the newly acquired provinces of Hunan, Kiangsi, and Hupeh, and to plan for the removal of the national government to Wuchang. These include Eugene Chen, minister of foreign affairs, whose letters have been harrassing Hongkong this autumn, George Hsu, judge of the supreme court, T. V. Soong, minister of finance, Sun Fo, mayor of Canton, Adviser Borodin who is an expert in government organization, and Mrs. Sun Yat-sen widow of the leader who is revered by every school child in China today.

In the absence of the mayor the acting chairman of the city council who is also the acting president of Canton Christian College, presided over the opening of another broad street in the city. To one who remembers the old Canton with its network of alleys never more than ten feet wide, these score of "horse roads" are the sign of a new efficiency. Automobiles and motor-buses can go from one end of the

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city to the other. We have spent four days in going about Canton to find those whom we have interviewed and only once have we entered the narrower streets. The city walls have been taken down and the space used for new roads. Not only in Canton but in the whole province of Kwangtung, the building of highways is considered of first importance. The chairman of the provincial reconstruction department who is set to carry out these plans is as alert and practical as the typical "captain of industry."

DURING these last few days also the government has settled a difficult question with the labor unions. The government arsenal was closed down because of excessive cost in operation and the workers were locked out. The threat of a general strike in protest brought about arbitration in which seven groups shared: the management of the arsenal, representatives of the arsenal workers, the Workers' Delegates' Congress, representatives of the general Machinists' Union, the labor section of the Kuomintang, the Labor Department of the provincial government, and the military headquarters of the Nationalist army. The arbitration commission fixed the blame for excessive cost as partly upon the workers for sabotage and partly upon the management for inefficiency. Each side has agreed to eleven points of settlement and the workers yesterday returned to work. A young labor leader, graduate of a mission college, now on the executive committee of the Workers' Delegates' Congress, told us about this settlement the day before it appeared in the papers. He told us also about the labor research bureau of the government which has begun a study of economic conditions in Canton to decide what demands labor can reasonably make.

This new emphasis upon social investigation in each center is one of the most vital movements in China. The Chinese call it the beginning of a "Know China" movement. In Canton, a social survey is started under the direction of the mayor's office and the general secretary of the Canton Y.M.C.A., Y.L.Li, has been asked to conduct it. It was refreshing to find him so thoroughly understanding of the labor movement and enlisting the unions' help in this social survey. Where a year and a half ago there were sixty unions in Canton, there are now two hundred and seventy. Every craft is organized. Even the errand boy in the Y.M.C.A. office wears a button as a member of the "Miscellaneous Workers' Union."

BUT of revolutionary Communism, in principle or in practice, either in this or in any other part of China, there is not enough to alarm even a Daughter of the American Revolution. A leading Communist in China gave us letters of introduction to his fellow Communists in different centers, but when we came to talk with them we found they were only Nationalists after all. A Communist Party in China of less than three thousand members carefully distinguishes itself from the left wing of the Kuomintang, although many of its members are also in that party. Communism is international; the Kuomintang is national. Communism depends upon a partnership of peasants and industrial workers against owners and capitalists. This Nationalist movement in China includes merchants, owners and employers working *with* students and manual workers against foreign domination. It became articulate in 1919 when the students aroused themselves to national consciousness in protest against the demands of Japan. It has grown mightily since the tragedies of May 30 and June 23, 1925, and of Wanhsien this autumn.

For the present, many Communists are working with other Nationalists for a program to meet the immediate needs of China: unification of the country by a complete victory of the Nationalist People's Army, declaration of the Nationalist government as the only central government existent in China today, abolition of the unequal treaties and of the foreign concessions secured by those treaties, establishment of China's tariff autonomy, and then industrial development that will absorb some of the thousands of unemployed workers. For this industrial development foreign financial cooperation could be of great assistance, but it will be acceptable to the Chinese only if it does not involve demands for foreign control.

Any other nation might have had the enviable position which Russia enjoys in China today. In 1920, Russia declared that

> The Soviet government restores to China without any compensation whatever the mining, forest, and all other concessions of which China was robbed by the government of the Tsar, the government of Kerensky, of the brigands Horvath, Semenov, Kolchak, and Russian generals and capitalists.

In May, 1924, the Russo-Chinese agreement was signed, stating that "the Government of the Union of the Soviet Socialist Republics agrees to relinquish the rights of extra-territoriality and of consular jurisdiction."

RUSSIAN advisers in Canton, Communists though they are, have come at the invitation of the Chinese to help build up an effective national government. The next nation that makes the move to relinquish extra-territorial rights will also secure the friendship of the four hundred million Chinese, more than a quarter of the earth's population. Japan may well be that next nation. She knows that trade depends upon the will to buy and that China as a market is essential to her own economic life. Theoretically the other nations also recognize this simple fact, that the trade they want in China depends not upon the number of gunboats they maintain in Chinese waters but upon the good-will of the Chinese people. Practically they are still causing daily offense to the people. There were thirteen foreign gunboats off the concessions of Hankow when we were there last month. Three of these were American, and the number of American gunboats in Chinese waters now totals fifty-two. Americans offend in smaller matters also. The American Club in Shanghai, as all the others excepting the Union Club, has closed its doors to Chinese guests. The general secretary of the Y.M.C.A., David Yui, was to meet a well-known American architect at the club, but could not get in until a servant led him around by way of the kitchen.

Yet Americans will probably never reap the crop of hate in China that is now reaped by the British. English missionaries are not allowed to return to their posts in western China this year for their consuls tell them their lives cannot be safeguarded in spite of extra-territoriality, gunboats, and all the power of the British Empire. For seventeen months now a consistent boycott against all British goods has been maintained by the Cantonese. Officially it was ended on October 10, but spontaneously it is in a measure still continuing. We saw the patrol of strikers carrying their banner, going from shop to shop to see that no British goods were sold. Canton has lost heavily from the boycott, but Hongkong has lost more. Even a loan of three (*Continued on page* 827)

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Settler and Trail-Blazer*

By PAUL U. KELLOGG

UNDER the spur of competition our sculptors are modeling the pioneer woman. Crowned by a sunbonnet, the wind whipping her skirt, a child in the crook of her elbow—the figures ranging from the Puritan settler with her Bible to the plains-woman with rifle in her free hand—that, after a span of from one hundred to three hundred years is the way our artists symbolize the type.

The successful statue will be set up in the Cherokee Strip, Oklahoma, which was one of the last wilderness frontiers. But in the '90s, which saw the remaining free lands of the Southwest thrown open for settlement, there was a new frontier. The stream of population had turned inward in great urban whorls. The new migration was city-ward. Here also were pioneers; here also women have been settlers and trail-blazers. Only it is perhaps all too recent and close up for us to see it in perspective or to seize upon its great personalities. They are still with us—and at work.

Lillian D. Wald of the "House on Henry Street" for one.

If some sculptor had the imagination to catch this modern epic in a symbol, as these others have dealt with the past of the wagon-train and the Indian country, his figure for the frontier which is New York would be a woman with a nurse's bag instead of a sunbonnet, and instead of the protected child he must needs show as the object of her concern a multitude, old and young; the sick, the well; the immigrant, the wage-earner; the rank and file of all of us, inexperienced city dwellers, quarter-sectioned as we are by those two great factors of a machine age—congregate work and congregate living.

The nurse's bag would not suffice as symbol for her function. Her tools have included social insight and a passion for humanity linked with that capacity which in politics we call statescraft, but which in the freer arena of community life is something warmer, more pliant and creative. To catch all this in his clay our sculptor might turn to the living model who bears the impress of these things in broad forehead and resolute chin and in eyes that are deep with human understanding.

However the time is not yet. The city frontier is still in process. Public health nursing has been acclaimed by Dr. William H. Welch, dean of American physicians, as one of the three outstanding contributions of America to public health (comparable to Gorgas's achievement at Panama); but the work of its pioneers still stretches ahead of them. On her sixtieth birthday, March 10, Miss Wald entered upon a new decade as frontier's woman.

NONETHELESS it is very much in order to mark what later generations may come to regard as her distinctive contribution to an epoch as packed with change as the period of western settlement. What has it meant to New York, to city dwellers generally, that in 1893, Miss Wald, fresh from her training in New York Hospital, took up her residence in the top floor of an East Side tenement and with Mary Brewster began the work, which crystallized two years later in the Henry Street Settlement and its Visiting Nurse Service? Had she bored Manhattan with subways, or staggered skyscrapers up the avenues, or strung Broadway with electric bulbs—as engineers and inventors have done in her life time—her accomplishment would stand out in the history of the city much as if a newspaper should print a broad line diagonally across its first page. We must search deeper for the works of hand of an architect and engineer whose building materials have been human lives and social institutions.

NOT to compare results or techniques, but rather to seek an analogy in the general strategy of their work, let us take three men who typify our characteristic national aptitude in the field of invention: Edison, Ford, and Burbank. What set them off, how they tackled their problems, what they brought about, are common knowledge. They may have been weak on theory and pure science, but in intuition, in combining and altering known factors and in improvising new, as instruments for meeting wide human needs, they personify the American genius in the field of applied science. Now our social concepts are much less plastic than are those of natural science; our social institutions more brittle than our industrial practices. We know far less about the way of social discovery and the incubation of social change. But my belief is that in improvising, modifying, blending, creating, Miss Wald has shown gifts kindred to this triumvirate; and the conditions she has had to work under have been more taxing. Edison could control his experiments in his laboratory. She has had to work amid the flux of human episode. Burbank had his gardens about him in his cross-fertilizations. In her work on the borderland of education and medicine, for example, Miss Wald has had to reckon with all the emotions and prejudices of self-contained professions. Ford had a marketable product which, once demonstrated, drove his invention across. Miss Wald has dealt with inertias as great as he, but in pushing her discoveries has had to depend on carrying conviction as to their human rather than their money worth. Her genius has been to come upon some unprivileged child, some broken family, some baffled man or woman, and to see summed up in each some dislocation in our modern life, some failure of old institutions to meet new days, some need or opportunity unrecognized or unmet by the past; to seize on the clue of meaning imbedded in the encounter; to germinate a way of solution; to organize the forces which would bring that solution about. Her generous gifts of instigation have not been limited to her own ideas, outstanding as those have been. She has put her shoulder to another's wheel; she has drawn the many into her own undertakings; has left credit to the winds and shared with all those who bore a hand the sheer joy of mutual adventure for the common good.

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JUST as the earlier pioneer woman had the homestead as her stage, Miss Wald has had its counterpart—the settlement household. She brought to the movement in the '90s its most redoubtable reinforcement, linking with all the ancient concerns of womankind the skill of a new profession. From the outset she was an insurgent and innovator in that oldest of woman's functions, the care of the sick. Nursing training and service as carried on in the hospitals of the day were divorced from the lives of the families from which their patients came. Miss Wald went out into the homes. District nursing of the day was largely identified with religious bodies or charity clinics. She put it on the new basis, and by hourly service paid for by the family whenever possible, brought private nursing within the reach of those with small means or no means at all. From an agent whose presence proclaimed the family's poverty or its failure to give adequate care to its sick member, the nurse's presence proclaimed the family's anxiety to do everything possible for the sufferer. She gave nursing a new status. While the Henry Street nurses did not give treatment except under the supervision of a doctor, they responded to calls from the people themselves and from social agencies no less than to calls from physicians, and they were no longer bound to a single practitioner—changes which were supported by leaders in the profession but at the time brought down the wrath of quacks and sticklers. The new nurses not only cared for the sick but instructed the mothers how to keep the families well—became in truth, social workers.

The tremendous field for such service is indicated by the fact that 90 per cent of sickness is cared for in homes. From its beginnings, thirty-four years ago, the Visiting Nurse Service has grown until last year, with its central office building at 99 Park Avenue, her staff of approximately 250 trained women served 50,000 patients in Manhattan, Richmond and Bronx boroughs, making nearly half a million visits. In 1909 the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, at Miss Wald's suggestion, undertook the nursing of its policyholders; and in 1926 Henry Street nurses made 150,000 visits for Metropolitan and John Hancock patients. Similarly, at Miss Wald's suggestion and through the gift of the late Jacob H. Schiff, the American Red Cross instituted its department of Town and Country Nursing. Her most recent work as councillor has been in the inauguration of a scheme of nurses' pensions by the Harmon Foundation.

Not only has the Henry Street system and technique spread throughout many other cities in this country, but throughout the world. Trained workers go out to foreign countries; graduate and pupil nurses come here for training —this year, for example, a Chinese public health nurse, who plans to inaugurate the system in Shanghai, and nurses from France, Germany, the Scandinavian countries, Liberia and Palestine.

In the compass of this brief article it is not possible to recount Miss Wald's participation in a wide range of health activities outside her profession, such as membership on the Joint Board of Sanitary Control which has revolutionized health conditions in the garment trades in New York.

TURN to the kindred field of education and the wide range of activities we group under the term child welfare. Like the hospitals, the schools were social institutions of an earlier epoch; it was the nurse who helped bridge the gap in New York between educator and physician. Thousands of children had broken schooling or were deprived of it entirely because of remediable physical defects or crude methods of handling infectious diseases, such as trachoma. First came the appointment of school physicians, in 1897. Next came an experiment with Henry Street nurses in the schools which reversed the early object of medical inspection. (It kept children in the class room and under treatment instead of excluding them). Then came the introduction of public school nurses in 1902, which the commission that drafted the State Health Law of 1913 described as marking "not only a new era in the treatment of the sick but a new era in public health administration." This innovation has spread until today Greater New York has its hundreds of school nurses and they are part of the educational set-up of the public school system in many of our states and abroad. And their beginning?—Miss Wald's encounter with twelve-year-old Louis, whose mother washed butchers' aprons for a living, and whose head needed only the application of the ointment given by the school doctor to cure the affliction that had barred the boy from a chance to learn to read.

It was in the rear of 265 Henry Street that the swings and slides were set going of what Joseph Lee, president of the National Playground Association, calls the "Bunker Hill of playgrounds." In 1898 the settlement participated in organizing the Outdoor Recreation League, and that year New York public schools were first opened as recreation centers. Out of the plight of a boy who sought a quiet corner in the settlement because his sister was "always using the table at home to wash the dishes," grew the study rooms which later were introduced in the public schools. And the ungraded classes which spell opportunity and a special chance for thousands of young New Yorkers, and which stood for that years before the present development of psychiatric work and behavior clinics, grew out of the pioneering in Public School No. 180 of Elizabeth Farrell. She has been for many years a resident at Henry Street and today directs the 400 ungraded classes which fall under the department of that name in the city school system. That, however, is another story, too long for this article; but it should be noted that its plot included the initiative of a young teacher in an old school; the instigative abilities of Miss Wald in engaging the interest of Superintendent Maxwell, President Charles C. Burlingham and Felix Warburg of the Board of Education; a group of misfit boys; and Tony, a Neapolitan, an incorrigible truant, whose emotional outbursts were due in part to defective vision.

From their inception, Miss Wald has been a member of both the New York and the National Child Labor Committees; she has been active in the cause of protective legislation and the Henry Street workers have borne testimony as to the evils of the street trades and sweatshops. But here, also, originated those affirmative measures—scholarships and vocational guidance—which have crystallized in the Vocational Service for Juniors. The House on Henry Street has from the first linked with its concern for the working life a cherishing of esthetic values, in game and song, in art and the beauty of living. Out of its festivals and dramatic classes grew the Neighborhood Playhouse, which in The Dybbuk and in other original ventures has contributed to the cultural ferment of the greater city.

And out of her deep insight into the needs of child life on the East Side, out of her swelling correspondence from people all over the country asking for counsel, grew Miss Wald's fruitful suggestion of the Federal Children's

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Bureau with all that that portends for the nurture of American life throughout the coming decades.

WHEN the House on Henry Street opened its doors, the East Side was the shore front to Ellis Island. Throughout the years Miss Wald has been in a special sense the friend of all comers. Just as she broadened the vision of physicians and school teachers, so she has stretched the imagination of her fellow Americans of the older stocks as interpreter of the stranger within the gates; interpreter also of one race to another, of one generation to another, of one economic class to another. Avoiding partisan politics and the despair of the doctrinaire, she has won the hearts and understood the aspirations of governors and mayors and police captains and ward leaders, rabbis and priests and ministers, revolutionists and pushcart peddlers, fathers and sons, mothers and daughters.

She has served the great Jewish community of the East Side, but she has served Irish and Italian and Russian neighbors no less. Long before the Negro migration to Harlem, the Henry Street Settlement had opened a branch (Lincoln House) in the colored district known as San Juan Hill. As a member of the New York State Immigration Commission in 1909 she helped create the first state bureau dealing with the protection and distribution of immigrants. In thousands of instances she has helped unravel the knot of injustice and tragedy that had caught some family in the meshes of red tape at Ellis Island. When the Czar's agents were about to deport Jan Pouren she carried his case as a political refugee to the White House and won. When Madam Breshkovsky came with the story of her life-work for the peasants, her Siberian exile, her struggle for freedom, Miss Wald's sympathy responded to the throbbing of that great human heart. They became fast friends. When war with Mexico threatened in 1916, her neighborliness stretched beyond the Rio Grande—she understood—and it is not overstating it to say that the organized efforts and representations made under her leadership to President Wilson, to Judge Gray and Secretary Lane and the other members of the American commission, sustained them at a critical hour in their course of moderation until the crisis was passed.

The common brotherhood of man is not a phrase to her; she knows people. She knows moreover the psychology of human conflict, from the clash of boys' gangs to age-long feuds between racial and religious groups. Her opposition to war and militarism had roots deep in her experience as a neighbor to all races on the East Side. Out of a conference at Henry Street during the first year of the World War, grew the American Union Against Militarism, of which she was chairman, and which in the succeeding months, when some of the old-time peace societies fell by the wayside and the peace foundations went on the shelf, pressed the government to make constructive use of its position as the one great neutral in a world at war. Later, after America's entry, a new organization of liberals, including those who had favored and those who had opposed our entrance into the war, crystallized on a program of democratic war aims and peace settlement—the beginnings of the present Foreign Policy Association, of which Miss Wald is a member of the board.

Much has been written of the discipline and dismissal of members of college faculties who ventured to run counter to the dominant mood in wartime and before; little of the reprisals made upon an executive in Miss Wald's position, who stood to her convictions. Hers was a difficult coign of vantage—with the welfare of thousands of families in the scales should her action involve the work of settlement and nursing service in reprisals. But evenly, courageously, constructively, the head worker of Henry Street thought through each step of policy as steward of that passion for humanity which had inspirited her work from the beginning; and out of the war years she brought it, tested, tempered, untarnished, a thing cherished by many who held contrary views no less than by those for whom she had been a voice in the wilderness.

Looking back, there is whimsical interest in the fact, for instance, that she was attacked as pro-German for helping stop our incipient war with Mexico when, as was later brought out, if there were any intrigue in that quarter by the Imperial German government it was to involve the United States and tie our hands by just such an embroglio on this side of the Atlantic. Meanwhile the director of the Nursing Service at Henry Street (Miss Goodrich) became head of the Army School of Nursing, and by an arrangement with the War Department pupil nurses trained during the war years got practical experience in the Henry Street service.

AN asset in those days was the friendship of men and women whose confidence in Miss Wald was grounded deep in mutual experience and respect. Editors, bankers, lawyers, public officials—leaders in a score of professions have beaten a path to her door on Henry Street. The late Bishop Potter was a near neighbor one summer; so was former District-attorney Jerome in his militant years. Woodrow Wilson was an old friend. The stairs that lead up to Miss Wald's study have creaked more than once to the vigorous tread of Theodore Roosevelt, and passersby on Henry Street have heard the shrill falsetto of T. R.'s laugh, mingled with the joyous whoops of Jacob Riis. Kropotkin and Tagore and Breshkovsky found a welcome at her hearth; Keir Hardie warmed his stockinged feet at her fender; Ramsay McDonald, later premier of England, was a guest at the settlement on his wedding trip. Artists, sculptors, diplomats, economists, philosophers, social workers from all the world know the brass-knocker at the door. Like Governor Hughes in his time, Governor Smith today, prizes the place and its mistress as a source of wise counsels.

Nonetheless Miss Wald would rank still higher other pollen-carriers of inspiration. Read her book, The House on Henry Street, and her magazine articles if you would make their acquaintance. First of all the little child who led her to a mother's wretched sick-bed one drizzling March morning in 1893, galvanizing her compunction as a member of society which permitted such things to exist and setting her on her life task. ("All the maladjustments of our social and economic relations seemed epitomized in this brief journey and what was found at the end of it.") Then there were Louis with the bad head, of whom came the world's first school nurse; and Tony, whose fits helped usher in the ungraded classes; that other tearful small boy from whom a "cop" had snatched his dice and his "cat" and whose travail contributed to New York's first playgrounds; the terror-stricken eight-year-old girl who had been alone with her mother when a baby sister was born and was straining at a wash-tub to cleanse the bed linen. Meet the mother who worked in a necktie factory, scrubbed after hours, pawned her wardrobe and sold her grave that

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her son might keep on with his music in Vienna; the native-born woman who bought a newspaper daily to conceal from her neighbors the fact that she could not read; the lad who hoped she wouldn't cure his head so that he "needn't go to the orphan asylum"; the tenement home-worker in an advanced stage of tuberculosis, making cigarettes at a pittance a hundred and licking the papers; the department-store girl whose most conscious desire was silk underwear! Make the acquaintance of Minnie, who struck that girls could have time to learn homemaking ("For all we know, soup grows on trees") and from whom Miss Wald got her first insight into trade unionism; the famous New York banker who came to find out what was wrong with the thinking of a group of East Side unionists and remained to help pay the cost of their strike for better conditions; the aged Russian physician who, after establishing his boy in life, set off for Sakhalin to join his wife who had been exiled for life in a frozen Siberian village. All these were real people plus, to Miss Wald. And the plus had to do with that spinning wheel of her imagination out of which came a thread of action—action based on infinite understanding, action which comprehended not their needs alone, but those of their kind.

On her visit to the Orient Miss Wald described the work of the settlement and what it stood for to a savant-artist. He drew some ancient characters in a circle. Asked what they meant, he said, "Human brotherhood"; and this has become the insignia of settlement and nursing service.

WITH a nursing staff numbering more than 250 trained people, with settlement executives, residents and volunteer club leaders matching that figure, with perhaps a thousand people involved in the organized sphere of her activities, and hundreds of thousands in their scope; with settlements, clubs, nursing centers, health centers, fresh air camps; with an annual budget of half a million dollars (over one-third met by nurses' fees), it is natural that Miss Wald is often regarded chiefly as a high-powered executive. To swing such a job necessarily calls for a big person. But to free herself from its exactions, to keep her contacts with the ordinary run of folk, to catch up and vitalize the constructive significance of the day's experiences —that calls for a great person. It is one of New York's tragedies that this creative personality is burdened by a perennial load of money-raising which would crush the ordinary executive. The cost of such nursing work as she has organized here is met in some cities of the world as a public expense, as a state insurance charge, or by the money-raising of a community chest. New York has offered none of these solutions. Board, staff and committees are loyal and unstinted in time and effort, but in the last analysis the load is on one woman's shoulders, except for the relief coming from a slowly mounting endowment.

Huge as it is, this administrative task is less significant than the dynamic quality of the woman who administers it—a combination of executive and creative capacities which make the analogy to Ford and Edison and Burbank by no means a far-fetched one. She is what Justice Brandeis once called a "social inventor" in an epoch when men have first turned from mechanical discovery to mankind in the making.

IN her genius for constructive instigation, Miss Wald is typical of the settlement pioneers. Last June they gathered together in Cleveland in the biennial meeting of the neighborhood workers the week preceding the National Conference of Social Work. The program of this latter huge conference was given over largely to the technical problems of a congeries of specialties. By comparison, the settlement gathering was a breath of fresh wind. Here were such pioneer women as Jane Addams and Julia C. Lathrop of Hull House, Lillian D. Wald of Henry Street, Florence Kelley, of both, Anna F. Davies of the College Settlement, Philadelphia, and Mary E. McDowell, head of the University of Chicago Settlement in the Stock Yards District, who today, a dozen years Miss Wald's senior, is the robustly active commissioner of the Department of Public Welfare of the city of Chicago. (Mrs. V. G. Simkhovitch of Greenwich House was in Europe, carrying the message of the American group to the international gathering of settlements.) Here were their successors in the 40's, the 30's, the 20's. Here also were the leading men of the movement—among them Graham Taylor of the Commons, their dean; Charles C. Cooper of Kingsley House, president of the National Federation, John L. Elliott of Hudson Guild, Kennedy (Robert A. Woods' successor at South End), Bellamy, Gilman, Teller and the rest.

You had sense of leadership close to the ground, of a dynamic which puts things to work. Some of their early objectives have been won (sweated trades outlawed, old-law tenements banned); some of their original activities have become part of the tax-borne service of municipal life (they have willed it so). Some of their confrères who were given over to blanket schemes of civic and political regulation have dropped out and are disillusioned. But not they. Nor are some of the younger leaders coming on—men and women. Their objectives may change, new adjustments may be made to new conditions—that is the settlement habit—but if they should run down as a generating force, American life would be immeasurably impoverished. Today they carry on.

The policeman who a while ago took an injured woman to the hospital long after midnight and called up Henry Street to find out what to do with her baby, had his answer from Miss Wald. When the clubs and classes are over, the offices closed, the staff retired, the night calls go direct to the telephone on the little table that stands beside her bed—as they have always done.

AND at their conference in Cleveland the settlement pioneers showed a flare back of their old dynamic. On Miss Wald's motion they took up the challenge of Dr. Haven Emerson in The Survey, for the social workers of the country to bear witness as to what prohibition, enforced and non-enforced, means in the lives of the people. Here was a red-hot poker. The great charitable societies, the civic bodies, the foundations, the universities had long given it a wide berth. The settlements, weak in financial strength but compact of courage, tackled it. A committee was appointed, Miss Wald took the chairmanship, an investigation was launched under Martha Bensley Bruère, and this month their findings will come out as a Harper's book under the title, Does Prohibition Work?—testimony pro and con, for better or worse, gathered by the neighborhood workers of urban America.

Of such breed are the pioneer women of our city frontiers. Such is the magic, compounded of humor, sympathy, astuteness and germinating action, which has been concealed in the nurse's bag of Henry Street along with its absorbent cotton, its bandages, its scissors and adhesive.

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The Common Welfare

SIXTY years ago, Oliver Wendell Holmes of Massachusetts, an officer in the Union forces, risked his life on the battlefields where North and South were fighting out the issue of human slavery. On the eve of his eighty-sixth birthday, Mr. Justice Holmes, speaking for the Supreme Court of the United States, reminds the nation that the aftermath of that struggle is not yet ended, and at the same time gives to those, white and black, who believe in justice for all citizens, "regardless of race, color or previous condition of servitude," a new and strong weapon for their long battle. The decision of the court in the case of Nixon vs. Herndon and Porras makes it necessary for such whites as are determined to continue the present disfranchisement of Negroes in certain sections of the country, to work by devious and complicated methods. They cannot achieve their ends directly by law.

Dr. L. A. Nixon, a Negro, sued two election officials for damages because he was not permitted to vote in the Democratic primary. Through the efforts of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, the case was carried to the highest court to test the constitutionality of the 1923 statute which provided that "in no event shall a Negro be eligible to participate in a Democratic party primary election held in the state of Texas, and should a Negro vote in a Democratic primary election, such ballot shall be void." Barred from voting in the Democratic primary, a citizen in the one-party "black belt" has no voice in his state government. The attorney-general of Texas maintained in his brief that "nominating primaries" were not known when the Fifteenth Amendment was passed, and that the regulation of primaries by state law cannot therefore conflict with this federal guaranty of the "right to vote . . . regardless of race, color or previous condition of servitude." The attorney-general added: "It is an 'ancient and accepted doctrine,' to use the words of the Democratic platform, and it is well known in Texas, that the Democratic party of the state is a white man's party."

Speaking for the Court, Mr. Justice Holmes said:

> We find it unnecessary to consider the Fifteenth Amendment because it seems to us hard to imagine a more direct infringement of the Fourteenth Amendment. . . . That amendment not only gave citizenship and the privileges of citizenship to persons of color, but it denied to any state the power to withhold from them the equal protection of the law. . . . The statute of Texas in the teeth of the prohibition referred to assumes to forbid Negroes to take part in an election . . . discriminating against them by the distinction of color alone. States may do a good deal of classification that it is difficult to believe rational, but there are limits, and it is too clear for extended argument that color cannot be made the basis of a statutory classification affecting the right set up in this case.

Few Negroes in the South are permitted to qualify as voters. In Mississippi, for instance, where there is an "understanding clause" in the election law, the attorney-general observes cynically, "I imagine that the Democratic county registrars in passing judgment upon the ability of the Negroes to understand the two constitutions, will in the future be quite conservative." Governor Dan Moody of Texas announces that to "protect the ballot" he will immediately ask the legislature to pass another law replacing that held unconstitutional by the highest court. He asserts that "the Democratic party is a voluntary organization. Certainly a law can be passed giving the committee of the party authority to prescribe rules as to who can participate in a party primary."

THE moral of the Supreme Court's unanimous verdict in the Fall-Doheny case reaches far beyond the venality of these two men in disposing of public property through transactions consummated by means of conspiracy, fraud and bribery. The opinion is a cleansing exorcism of a common interpretation of the lately triumphant slogan that what the country needed was more business in government and less government in business, the effect of which was to bring government into contempt and to befuddle the functional relationship between government as the guardian of the general welfare and business as the agent to which the public delegates freely elected but limited public services. The judgment of the court shows that the ethics of the spoils system has spread from the civil service, where spoils were formerly rampant, into the covert transactions between business and public servants. As interpreted by Messrs. Fall and Doheny, the triumphant slogan was taken as a warrant to transfer public property from the implied incompetence of government to the hustling efficiency of private enterprise with or without congressional sanction. What is the difference in principle between the rough stuff pulled by these gentlemen and the subtler forms of influence exercised by lobbyists over legislators, or by campaign contributors over aspirants to public office? The deeper moral of the court's verdict is that all transactions deliberately designed to defeat the public interest as defined in the statutory formulation of public policy, in the assumed interest of private individuals or special groups, whether or not in conformity with legalistic technicalities, are "tainted with corruption."

The sweep of this rule carries beyond domestic affairs and bears upon foreign policy. Repeatedly during recent years the controversy between our State Department and the Mexican government over the application of Mexican law to the control of petroleum properties held by American promoters has threatened a breach of diplomatic relations. In an editorial analysis of the basic facts about Mexican oil, the New York World finds that three-fifths of the property interest on which this dispute turns was acquired and managed by Edward L. Doheny up to 1925. "It would indeed be a spectacle," says the World, "if the United States government, having recovered its property which was taken by fraud, should turn around and insist at the risk of a rupture in diplomatic relations that everything this same Doheny acquired in Mexico was sacred and in-

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violable." The old proverb has it that possession is eleven points of the law. What would happen in the world if, as the result of the Supreme Court's verdict in the Fall-Doheny case, prevailing opinion should rewrite the proverb so as to accord eleven of the twelve points of law to the ethics of acquisition—the means taken to procure title to property?

A YEAR ago the forty-eight-hour bill for women in factories and mercantile establishments was tossed to the Industrial Survey Commission by harrassed party leaders, unable either to pass the measure or to assume the burden of its defeat (see The Survey, May 15, p. 230). The Commission was instructed to investigate conditions in establishments affected by the bill and to advise the legislature as to the need for this measure of protective legislation for women. In its report, recently submitted to the legislature, the Industrial Survey Commission declares itself "in favor of a forty-eight-hour law for women." It recommends a modified forty-eight-hour measure, however, which would make a forty-nine and a half hour week permissible where workers have a day and a half free time, and would also permit "not to exceed seventy-eight hours of overtime in any one year, such overtime to be available to the employer whenever he requires it." The report adds:

> To your Commission it seems that a more important question to women is the obtaining for them of wages more nearly approximating the wages of men engaged in work requiring equal intelligence and application. In comparison to the wages given to men the wages paid to women are unjustly inadequate. As one woman stated, a woman well paid, well fed, is happier at fifty-two hours than one underpaid at forty-eight hours.

A measure based on the Commission's report was immediately introduced into both houses of the legislature.

The Consumers' League, an organization which has always carried on an active campaign for protective legislation, announced in a press statement that it had "decided to endorse the report of the Industrial Survey Commission on the regulation of the hours of labor of women in this state." The League points out, however, that it disapproves the "seventy-eight fluid hours of overtime in any calendar year. . . . The distribution of these hours throughout the year makes possible a regular working week of fifty-one hours, thus greatly modifying the beneficial effects of the forty-eight-hour week as a general principle."

ARKANSAS was admitted in February to the birth registration area as the thirty-sixth state therein. Three-fourths of the states, containing approximately 78 per cent of the total population, being thus recorded as now complying with the standard of the U. S. Bureau of Vital Statistics by registering 90 per cent of their births, twelve remain as fields of missionary endeavor. These bespatter the map from South Carolina to Nevada, and from North Dakota to New Mexico, including also Alabama, Colorado, Georgia, Louisiana, Missouri, Oklahoma, Tennessee and Texas. The causes of their laggard plight are obvious, vast areas, sparse population, insufficient roads and schools and, everywhere outside of Nevada and North Dakota, widespread illiteracy.

Birth registration, meanwhile, develops new values every year. The latest need for a birth certificate seems to be as a prerequisite for a motor car license, unregistered minors being in some states ruled out as applicants. An important service of a birth certificate is proving eligibility (as to age) for minors under 18 years entitled to double or treble compensation when injured while illegally employed, but looking too old. A cognate service avails for boys and girls on the border-line between juvenile court and criminal court when they are far from home and look older than they are. A priceless treasure is a birth certificate in connection with a passport, for American-born sons and daughters of foreign-born parents desiring to return hither after a trip abroad. It is a substantial convenience, also, for an American-born heir to foreign property, being indispensable on the Continent for the transfer of an estate.

The abiding importance of registration is, however, for enforcement of child labor and compulsory school attendance laws, and as the solid statistical basis for infant mortality rates, those modern tests of civilization.

In view of this evolution, it is an enlightening fact that, fifteen years ago, when the Children's Bureau was created in 1912, the birth registration area consisted of eight states, six in New England with Pennsylvania and Michigan. The Bureau's first annual report suggested ways of extending the area. Immediately hundreds of club women volunteered in a score of states, to test the thoroughness of prevailing methods. The interest then kindled has never died out. Appropriations under the Sheppard-Towner Act have enabled the states to keep at work public health nurses whose trained ingenuity supplements the zeal of volunteers.

But not until good roads, more and better rural schools and universal public health nurses bring the last state into the birth registration area, can we know certainly where we stand among civilized peoples when ranked according to the deaths of little children before the first birthday.

THERE are those who deplore the modern shift in emphasis from the uncertain blessings of another world to the visible treasures of this. Yet the most fundamental fundamentalist could scarcely fail to rejoice in the "living endowments" of richly creative human work which, here and there are being substituted for a granite monument to a courageous worker, all too often erected at the end of a lifetime curtailed in usefulness and made unnecessarily difficult by lack of tools and leisure or by the nagging pressure of financial insecurity.

Perhaps the most notable of these tributes is the Wilmer Institute at Johns Hopkins, the greatest center in the world for the study and treatment of diseases of the eye (see The Survey, November 15, 1925, page 198). Similar in spirit was the raising of a fund of $25,000 by alumnae of Vassar College for the use during her life

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time of Lucy Salmon, a much loved pioneer in educational method, and then designed as a memorial fund to carry on Professor Salmon's unique contribution to the vitalized teaching of history. The fund was completed just before the sudden death of Miss Salmon a few weeks ago.

Now comes announcement of the Patty Smith Hill Fund, a tribute to forty years of "active service in the field of education . . . to be used for whatever educational purpose Miss Hill sees fit." Miss Hill, director of the Department of Kindergarten-First Grade Education at Teachers' College, Columbia University, has been one of the active forces in the growth of pre-school education in this country from the first charity kindergartens to the modern nursery school and junior primary. In announcing the fund, the committee, of which Mary E. Pennell of Teachers' College is chairman, points out that "On this . . . anniversary, while she is in our midst, actively engaged in educational work, it seems a fitting time for her friends to join in some tribute to her. We all know that nothing would give Miss Hill greater pleasure than for this tribute to be something that she can share with others and use to further the cause of education." If, as the committee hopes, the sum raised is large enough so that only the interest need be used, the fund will be placed in the hands of the trustees of Teachers' College, to be distributed under Miss Hill's direction for the furtherance of her life work.

TO a candid and stubbornly tolerant disposition, Percy Stickney Grant added the overwhelming impressions of a first pastorate in a mill-town of the eighties. He had at first hand an understanding not only of the hardships of workingmen's lives but of the spiritual needs of men and women who tend machines. Fall River supplied the background which was to make the rich and conservative Church of the Ascension on Fifth Avenue in New York a storm center for thirty years. Dr. Grant's personal charm and sincerity won him the backing of his church in his religious liberalism. And he was able to carry this over into an industrial radicalism that found weekly expression for ten years in the freest of all the open forums. He felt that the half-dumb, driven man must have his say whether or not he has anything worth saying, and he demonstrated that the church is an appropriate place for this release of tightly-bottled grievance. Certain it is that the Ascension Forum gave a hearing to many who must elsewhere hold their tongues and that it survived every sort of open and covert attack until the first wave of war hysteria closed it with a snap in 1917.

Dr. Grant was an unfailing witness for the under-dog at court, at radical inquiries, at Albany, at Dr. Crapsey's trial for heresy. And he was no less courageous in his personal life. When a foundling was left on his bachelor doorstep, he insisted on taking it in though the commissioner of charities, who permitted it, warned him what the man in the street would say—and did say. His resignation three years ago was the final outcome of a fundamental cleavage with Bishop Manning on the question of divorce which had run over twenty years, and which Dr. Grant, then 64 years old, characteristically brought to a fighting test by proposing to marry a lifelong friend who had been divorced. After his recent death his will disclosed that he had left a substantial share of his modest estate to his servants—and the tabloid newspapers tried to make a sensation of it.

Summing up his ministry, The Churchman said: "For thirty years he lived in New York, both succeeding and failing; but never growing old, never afraid of the new day and the coming generation; never marking time, seldom keeping step."

HOW the industrial warfare which rent Scranton, Pennsylvania, during the anthracite coal strike of 1925-6 served to lay the foundations of a new sort of interest and sympathy through all the classes of the city, becomes apparent in the records of the Scranton Community Chest for the successful campaign finished early this winter. The Chest in this city has been oversubscribed for several years. Its success is, of course, based on a number of factors not connected at all with the strike, but at least one hopeful outcome of those dreary months of the strike was evident from the opening campaign dinner of the Miners' Division when three hundred mine workers, grievance committeemen, union officials and coal company operators, who only a few months before had been deadlocked against each other in strike negotiations, sat around a table to discuss their joint job of raising money, till the triumphant finish when it was disclosed that this division had raised more than $100,000, or nearly a sixth of the total subscription.

The strike started in September and each succeeding month saw an increased number of applications for relief from the Family Welfare Society until by December the monthly total had quadrupled. Then, just before Christmas, a newspaper started a campaign to raise money for the strike sufferers, and the Community Chest, feeling that such an object was properly the affair of the whole community, stepped in with an appropriation of $15,000, later raised to $35,000, and organized an Emergency Relief Committee with representatives from the Chest, the Red Cross, the Salvation Army, the United Mine Workers, the Family Welfare Bureau, the Business and Professional Men's Club, the Jewish Federation, Travelers' Aid, City Health Department and Poor Board. Applications poured in—on one day more than five hundred applicants and workers passed through the offices of the Committee. Volunteers were asked to do the visiting and more than a hundred responded, some trained workers from the staffs of the social agencies, others untrained, but interested citizens. Nearly 2,000 families were aided during the next two months with clothing, food, coal, money, and service. Of course the rigorous case standards of the agencies had to be scrapped in the emergency and some poor work was done, but on the whole the job brought satisfaction to both workers and clients.

One of the most significant episodes was the question asked by one of the large coal companies as to the amount of relief furnished its employes. As the committee had no way of identifying them, the company sent its own representative to compile the information. At the end of the relief period, when the strike was settled, the company sent

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its check to the committee to cover the whole amount with the request that no publicity be given to the matter. "In my mind," writes Philip Salsburg, the assistant secretary of the Chest, "this little incident was very significant. I doubt if such a thing could have been possible during the great strike of 1902."

THE federal longshoremen's and harbor-workers' bill, the strange legal history of which was reviewed in The Survey for February 15, has been enacted into law. It was called up for consideration and passed in the Senate in an interval of the hectic filibuster on the last morning of the sixty-ninth Congress. This is the first federal law to apply the compensation principle to a large group of workers in private employment. Because of its national sweep, it introduces the principle of compensation into those southern maritime states which are among the few remaining states without compensation laws of their own. Its benefit provisions follow closely the schedules of the New York law, which in this respect is the most modern in the country. It provides all the medical care which experience has demonstrated to be necessary. It limits the non-compensated waiting period after accidents to seven days. It guarantees compensation to the extent of two-thirds of wages with a maximum weekly amount fixed at twenty-five dollars.

The history of this statute began in 1917 when in the Jensen case the United States Supreme Court held that state compensation laws were inapplicable to harbor-workers who at the time of their accidents happened to be aboard vessels riding in navigable waters. Its enactment is a tribute to the sustained and effective cooperation between a trade union and a social agency. On Capitol Hill it is matter of common acknowledgment that this law would not have been passed except for the patient and intelligent teamwork between Anthony Chlopek, president of the Longshoremen's Union, and John B. Andrews, secretary of the American Association for Labor Legislation. The news that the President had signed the bill reached The Survey just as this issue was going to press. A more detailed analysis of its provisions and its significant history, more especially as illustrating the possibilities of cooperation between trade unions and social agencies, will appear in an early issue.

THAT the nursing profession is worse off than any other group of similarly trained technical workers in regard to hours, pay, and working conditions is the burden of a draft report just submitted by the British Labour Party to a conference of nursing and kindred organizations. The report recommends that training schools should receive grants as educational institutions from the educational authorities, and that maintenance scholarships should be awarded to approved students, that nurses in training should work an eight-hour day and a forty-eight-hour week, inclusive of lecture hours, with one full day each week and one week-end each month off duty, an annual vacation of not less than three weeks, and an annual salary during training of not less than $200. It suggests further that the only way in which graduate nurses can "deal effectively with their conditions and exercise any sort of equality in bargaining power is for the profession to be organized on trade union lines." In the meantime there are minimum standards which those responsible as employers—especially members of public bodies—should endeavor to carry out: the forty-eight-hour week in both institutional and district nursing, an annual vacation of not less than four weeks with full pay, and a salary sufficient to enable the nurse to live comfortably, to take a good vacation, and contribute to a pension on which she can retire at the age of fifty-five. There should be a joint body of the ministry of health, local authorities and health visitors to standardize the training and working conditions for health visitors, school nurses and tuberculosis visitors, and the ministry should refuse to sanction any appointments not made in accordance with this scale.

Not the least interesting recommendation of this Labour Party report is that a superannuation or pension scheme for nurses should be made compulsory on all local authorities. "In view of the arduous nature of the work, the retiring age should be 55 with the option of continuing till 60 if physically fit." In London a plan for contributory pensions for hospital officers and nurses has been under discussion since the end of the war, led by the King Edward's Hospital Fund for London, and probably it will be put into effect during the fore-part of this year. Forty-eight hospitals, with a total of nearly 12,000 beds, have now joined in it, the scales of contributions and benefits have been approved, and the commercial insurance companies have been asked to submit quotations. The scheme provides an annual payment of 15 per cent of the salary and emoluments (the latter chiefly the value of the board and residence in an institution), of which one-third is met by the insured person, two-thirds by the hospital. The endowment policies provided by these payments mature at the age of 55 in the case of nurses and of 60 for medical officers, though retirement at these ages is not compulsory.

BOTH reasonable and modest is the suggestion of Alexander M. Bing that a portion of the enormous wealth now controlled by foundations and endowments be invested in limited dividend companies to provide model housing for wage-earners. At present at least $825,000,000 is controlled by philanthropic and educational foundations, $650,000,000 by college endowments, and $1,000,000,000 by churches, hospitals and other charitable institutions. A complete record of these funds might easily total $3,500,000,000 and at the present rate of increase it is likely to reach $10,000,000,000 within the next decade. Now on the solid basis of his experience in the City Housing Corporation, which soon will have completed livable homes for nearly 1,500 families just across Queensboro Bridge from Manhattan, Mr. Bing believes that funds can be invested both safely and socially in such projects, and that a company organized to give a moderate but sure

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return can at the same time provide better houses, with gardens, parks, and playgrounds, than any speculative or commercial builder would dream of considering. Sunnyside, the City Housing development, is proof of the pudding, as are some of the other model housing developments aided by the funds of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, or by John D. Rockefeller, Jr. [The Survey, December 15, 1926, p. 371]. While steam-shovels still are digging the excavations of the houses which the latter is building in the Negro quarter of Harlem, more than 3,000 applications for apartments have come in. Inasmuch as the foundations and endowments must hold their wealth permanently for investment and use only the interest or dividends, the suggestion that their trustees be authorized to use five or ten per cent of it in limited-dividend housing companies offers a rational plan for double-barrelled philanthropy, with right and left hand doing good in unison.

IN Springfield, Massachusetts, fifty years ago, in the very year in which, according to accepted history, Buffalo founded the first of the American Charity Organization Societies, a similar society was started, although it did not take the name of the parent society, in London, England, but was called the Union Relief Association. On the occasion of its fiftieth anniversary, celebrated in its attractive new quarters on February 13, the Family Welfare Society of Springfield, as it now is called, boldly challenged the distinction heretofore conceded to the Buffalo Society and claimed in the press and in the public addresses the honors of the first-born.

There is no doubt that the Union Relief Association was started a few weeks earlier than the Buffalo Charity Organization Society, but was it in fact a charity organization society? Well, for that matter, would our friends in Buffalo want to argue that Mr. Gurteen and his associates in Buffalo fifty years ago fully represented the real philosophy of the charity organization movement? And if this is answered affirmatively, would it then be contended that this philosophy was absent from the understanding of Robert M. Hartley and his associates who nearly forty years earlier, in 1841, founded the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor? If social case-work is the task and family welfare is the goal, rather than the organization of charity as both task and goal, it is difficult to decide where the historical honors belong.

At the Springfield anniversary, Mrs. Charles Whiting, who for seventeen years was the executive secretary and whose recollections extend to the origin of the Society, explained in a brief address how it came about that the city of some 30,000 population had the courage and the information to undertake so ambitious an enterprise before our larger cities had done so.

Samuel Bowles, the first, was then publishing the Springfield Republican and was in the vigor of youth. Associated with him were two men, J. G. Holland, poet—later to acquire fame as editor of the Atlantic Monthly, and Frank Sanborn, who in 1874 had brought about the organization of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, under the auspices of the American Social Science Association at Saratoga. As secretary of the State Board of Charities of Massachusetts and as the wit and philosopher of the National Conference, Mr. Sanborn became as well known in charitable as Mr. Bowles was in editorial circles. To this remarkable trio of newspaper men, Mrs. Whiting added a fourth, Washington Gladden, then pastor of the North Congregational Church, Springfield, whose challenge to "tainted wealth" brought him a reputation which among social workers had not obscured his greater service in the Associated Charities of Columbus, Ohio, and as a constant writer and speaker on social problems.

Four such men as Bowles, Holland, Sanborn and Gladden, especially when reinforced by two or three remarkably gifted women, suggests that there was probably something more in the early Family Welfare Association of Springfield than the traditional narrow, old-fashioned relief society. They may well have been aware of and directly influenced by the ideas then prevalent in London which led at about the same time to the first of the social settlements and to the first charity organization society.

Edward T. Devine, who is now dean of the Graduate School of the American University in Washington, gave the anniversary address on the theme, Is Social Work Worth What It Costs? The Rev. Edward A. Reed, the minister who in his youth invoked the blessing on the infant society in 1877, was present in the ripe maturity of his advanced years to offer the invocation at the semicentennial.

IT is impossible to duplicate in this country the kind of inventory of a nation's children which has just been published in the annual report of the School Medical Service of England and Wales for 1925. More than half of the 5,000,000 elementary school children were examined, as well as 150,000 pupils in secondary schools, while the corrections of physical defects—glasses, tonsil operations, and so on—run into the tens and hundreds of thousands. These two countries can show proudly the record of one whole-time school physician to every 8,500 school children; in New York City the ratio is one part-time physician to 13,000. They have one whole-time school nurse to every 2,950 school children; one dentist to each 14,000. Even in these years of after-war poverty, out of every $100 spent for service, $2.50 went for school medical service; in the United States, the corresponding item would be about $1.50. It is interesting that fewer London children are found in need of medical treatment than elsewhere in the country; even more interesting that there is a small but apparently real improvement in both height and weight in the five-year-old children who came up for examination in 1924 as compared with the pre-war years. The report points out that three conditions have determined the physical well-being of the young pupils who present themselves for the first time at the school doors each autumn—good stock, an efficient mother, and an effective medical service to aid her. The first cannot be ensured by any system now known to us, but the second and third lie within the reach of painstaking and intelligent endeavor, and this accounting of the services in England and Wales shows both an effort and an accomplishment which may well shame our richer land.

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Health Centers for New York

By MICHAEL M. DAVIS and ANNA MANN RICHARDSON, M.D.

THE old-fashioned charity dispensaries which gave a hasty glance and a bottle of medicine to the "deserving poor" are becoming as antiquated as soup-kitchens. Increasingly it has been recognized that the best out-patient service for the sick can generally be rendered in the out-patient department of the hospital, with a fully equipped institution and staff. Before the Civil War there had been established a baker's dozen of the old kind of "dispensaries," but of late years the number of these has not increased but has actually diminished, chiefly through combination with a hospital.

But about the time the old-fashioned dispensaries began to decline, a new kind of clinic—and many of them—began to arise, independent of hospitals like their predecessors, but very different in purpose and scope. Their usual emphasis was not treatment of disease, but was prevention. They came as a result of organized militant health movements—the tuberculosis movement, the infant and child-welfare movements and so on, through the growing realization by philanthropic and educational agencies and by large business establishments, of needs of their clientele or their employes which could not be met by private physicians or already established medical institutions. Both their objectives and their methods were new. By 1926 there had grown up, chiefly since the war, about 135 new health-service clinics in Manhattan and about 230 in the whole city. The great variety of public and private organizations—municipal departments, city-wide health associations or charitable societies, local agencies like settlements and churches—which have established the new clinics, and their rapid increase in number, naturally raise questions. Are these unattached clinics a mushroom growth or have they a permanent and distinctive place in the scheme of twentieth-century medical service? There can hardly be question regarding the desirability of the infant welfare stations, prenatal clinics and health services to school children under the Departments of Health and Education. The issue, if there be one, centers about the unattached clinics maintained by private agencies. In Manhattan, the number of unattached clinics maintained by private organizations exceeds those carried by the Department of Health, although the number of visits to the municipal stations is larger.

Often these unattached clinics are small, but their importance cannot be measured in terms of attendance. Their real significance is that they have been service stations, and still more experiment stations, in *health* service, or in other words, in the application of preventive medicine to the individual. This is the field in which leaders of public health now generally believe the great future of both official and voluntary health work to lie. The problems of dealing with the material environment for the purpose of sanitation have been largely mastered and reduced to administrative routine. The problems ahead in constructive health work are those which involve the hygienic guidance, instruction, education or re-education of the individual. The reduction of infant and maternal mortality, the healthy and wholesome development of children in body and mind, the application of existing knowledge to control of tuberculosis, venereal disease, heart disease, cancer, and the degenerative diseases and chronic illnesses of middle and later life, involve the community as well as individual factors, but will depend primarily upon success in rendering health service to individuals.

FROM CLINICS, HOSPITALS AND HEALTH CENTERS BY MICHAEL M. DAVIS (HARPER) REVIEWED ON PAGE 815

In New York City and throughout the country the unattached clinic has been the chief institution through which the methods, technique and policies of this health service have been, and still are being, worked out. These clinics have provided the centers in which the physicians have worked upon the problems, and from which the public health nurse and the social worker have found their door of approach to the people. While many of the unattached clinics under local and even under city-wide organization have not been equipped either in personnel or resources to function effectively, yet, in the main it is in just such stations that significant contributions have been made. It would be a serious blow to one of the important developments in modern health work, as well as to the immediate needs of many persons, to hamper agencies in developing clinics. It is wise and desirable, however, to stimulate and guide this development, so far as

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possible, in directions which will mean the best utilization of limited resources.

At the present time, clinics rendering health service cannot be sufficiently developed in conjunction with the hospital. In the hospital and the out-patient department the emphasis upon curative work is inevitable, though much preventive medicine can be applied to the individual in the early stages of disease in the out-patient department, and during the convalescent period in both out-patient department and hospital. Proximity to a neighborhood is essential in order to reach its population intensively for some forms of health service. Districting is desirable for the maximum economy of time and energy both of clients and of clinic personnel, primarily the nursing and social work. The location of hospitals and the out-patient departments immediately connected with them must be determined by many considerations. Hence in any districting plan certain areas will require clinics or health centers to bring health service where the people will use it, located apart from hospitals.

What forms should unattached clinics take, as to manner of organization? Four general types of organization have been developed in this city:

1. Local individual units, such as those established by industries, settlements, churches, schools and some charitable organizations.
2. Similar service rendered in individual units under the auspices of city-wide organization, such as those established in New York City by the Department of Health, the Maternity Center Association, the Henry Street Nursing Service, the New York Diet Kitchen, the A. I. C. P., the New York Tuberculosis and Health Association.
3. Local federations of agencies such as have been developed by some Neighborhood associations, not in a building, but with certain mutual understandings and cooperative machinery, and possibly certain common services rendered by the federated group itself as in the Chelsea and Greenwich districts of Manhattan, and more distinctively, in the Clinton district, under the Clinton Neighborhood Conference.
4. The health center. Various clinic and other services rendered in a single building under unified administration, or under the administration of a federate body.

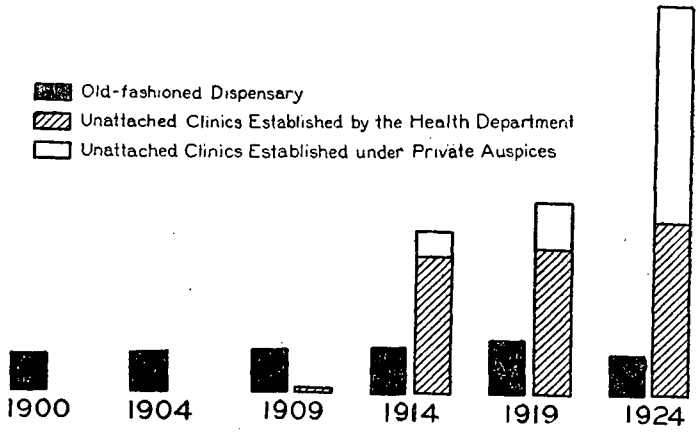
For the first group, it has been apparent that there are insuperable difficulties in the way of a satisfactory development of unattached clinics under the auspices of independent, purely local organizations. It is inconceivable that the systematic covering of a city could thus take place, or any systematic coordination of the differing types of clinic service with one another on the medical and social sides.

ON the other hand, the study of the needs of various local organizations, settlements, churches, and charitable societies has made clear that there are specific needs and opportunities for service, which may require these organizations to establish clinics, but that these clinics should usually be limited to serving the clientele of the organization itself, that is, those persons who come to the settlement, church, day nursery or charitable agency for the other work of that agency. The settlement gymnasium work, for example, and the recreational activities connected with its athletics and summer vacations, provide need for health examinations and health supervision of children and young persons, and this need can best be met by securing service on the spot from qualified personnel. Similarly, special schools and day nurseries have need for the supervision of the health and hygiene of their pupils.

The settlements or the day nurseries might, through their city organizations, arrange for joint action in securing the desirable medical personnel and medical supervision for its health examinations and hygienic services. What has been accomplished through cooperative action in country-care examinations may suggest possibilities in this field also.

The theoretical place, therefore, of the local individual units is to establish clinics primarily, or perhaps solely, for intra-mural service, or intra-organization service.

The city-wide organization is in a different position. The city-wide organization interested in various special health programs—prenatal, nutrition, tuberculosis, and so forth,



must necessarily encourage, and in some instances establish unattached clinics in some districts, but ought to do so, so far as possible, as part of a general health center program, cooperating with local or with other city-wide agencies in so locating and federating the clinics that they constitute as nearly as possible the health center of a district.

The health center is clearly indicated as the goal of the development of unattached clinics. Towards the ideal of a city which is districted and which has in each district a health center, many are working at the present time. The local federation of agencies in a district is a step in this direction which ought to be encouraged, since with very little expense it helps to coordinate the unattached clinics of an area. It is also a step in the direction of a health center having its physical expression in a building and definite organization for continuous common services.

In what manner can assistance be given in some of the present problems of existing unattached clinics, and how can their development be aided in this direction?

It is greatly to be hoped that through the medium of the unattached clinic all possible will be done to facilitate the continuous study of standards and methods of health service to individuals. A still broader problem, which greatly needs systematic attention, is the study of methods of health education and the testing of their effectiveness. All sorts of experiments are being made today in the use of literature, talks, individual conferences, group conferences, conferences in the clinic, conferences in the patient's home, moving pictures, radio, class and club work, and even gold stars, borrowed from the methods of the Sunday school. What is needed are a few stations properly equipped in personnel and other resources to give systematic and critical study to the effectiveness of these various methods and their comparative cost. The problem goes deeper than merely judging the relative values of literature, movies and gold stars. If

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we are to apply preventive medicine effectively to the individual, it is necessary that we know more about the psychological incentives which are effective for the various sex and age groups and for the various personality types, in order to stimulate the individual into willingness to change his habits. Effective health education, without waste effort, waits upon the clarification of these incentives by patient experiment and observation.

The study of methods of health education would also help in clearing up the not infrequent confusion between the health education of an individual or a family, and the helping of the individual or family to make needed social readjustments. The case work of the social worker deals primarily with the latter, while the typical activities of the public health nurse in association with a clinic deal primarily with health education. The two needs may, and often do, coexist in the same family, and a single agent with adequate training can serve both needs in many instances. Today, however, in a large city we generally find many specialized agencies, and the tasks of health education and of social case work are frequently separated between different staffs, and their respective boundaries are often not clearly defined. Anything which will help to define the broad, somewhat vague, field of health education will aid in clarifying its relations and in determining the best organization and the best qualifications of the personnel for doing it and the related social case work. In addition to such investigations into methods of health service, administrative research should be encouraged, particularly in developing methods for securing, tabulating, correlating and utilizing the current statistics of health centers.

WHETHER a cooperative organization of the unattached clinics on a city borough basis would be a useful means of supplying the personnel and supervision required and of promoting coordination was carefully considered for New York City with the conclusion that a general organization of the unattached clinics themselves would *not* be of much value in establishing and promoting high standards. The individual units are widely different in the kinds of medical service furnished, in the background of the organization maintaining them, and in the immediate problems with which they are wrestling, since these vary greatly with the clientele served, or with the neighborhood. There would be very little in common were representatives of such a heterogeneous group brought together, and slight possibility of a self-supporting and effective federate organization.

It *is* believed worth while and practicable to provide for the professional personnel of the unattached clinics—physicians, dentists, nurses and others—the same kind of stimuli, standards, meetings, and other well-intended helps which the Association of Tuberculosis Clinics or the various sections of the Associated Out-Patient Clinics have furnished. On this plan, the professional personnel are gathered together in each specialty or type of service represented, so that a common interest exists as a basis for the activity of the sectional organization. Bringing together from time to time the physicians interested in pre-school work, the dentists at the various dental clinics, the nurses serving clinics of various types, each in their several gatherings, would be beneficial to professional standards but cannot be expected to have much effect on organization or coordination.

Conferences in 1923 led to the conclusion that useful groupings of the unattached clinics might be formed along neighborhood or district lines. Whether the clinics of a given district are individually providing baby welfare, prenatal, dental, mental hygiene or other special services, their representatives have a common interest in the problems of the district with which all were acquainted, and local conferences or local organizations directly promote common planning and lead towards coordination of services. A spontaneous development has actually taken place along these lines in the Clinton, Greenwich, Chelsea and other districts. It will be desirable for some appropriate city-wide organization to promote and foster local conferences, and whenever possible, definite local cooperative organizations of this type. Only through such means can it be expected that existing clinics can be brought together into federations, and ultimately into health centers with a building. Agencies must be brought to work together sufficiently to be ready eventually to make a health center affiliation.

IT is much to be hoped that the city-wide agencies establishing unattached clinics will consider their policies carefully and will either establish only such unattached clinics as give the intra-mural service to the clients of the agency itself, or to some very special group, or combine with a local agency such a settlement, which will provide the plant and certain neighborhood connections, the city-wide agency furnishing the personnel and the professional supervision. In this way, many of the difficulties of the local unattached clinic will be overcome and there will be economy on both sides. Cooperative effort in any given district on the part of several city-wide agencies with one or more of the local agencies of the district would create almost or quite a health center for that area.

The financial side of a program for the coordination of existing services on a district basis and the establishment of health centers through a city like New York is large enough to be formidable. But it is not impossible. What has been done in Boston by a combination of public and private endeavor may well stimulate our larger and wealthier city. The immediate obstacles are psychological. These must be overcome by promoting the idea of coordination, the existing need for it, and its practicability and economy.

SUCH a body must deal with both the research and the promotive sides. It must aid in the definition of needs and standards and must steadily promote higher standards among the professional personnel of the clinics. It must assist in persuading some of the stagnated or declining old dispensaries that their endowments might be made the nucleus of health centers, putting them to a better twentieth-century use than by continuing to furnish eighteenth-century charity. Likewise, it must devote equal effort to capturing the imagination of the public and of private givers with the needs and the possible achievements of health centers and clinics as forms of preventive medicine. Is it too much to expect that what George R. White has done for Boston, one or more New Yorkers will do for New York?

This article is part of a forthcoming publication by the same authors, New Clinics for Old, an historical and critical review of the old dispensaries and of the new unattached clinics and health centers in New York City. Copies may be obtained through the Committee on Dispensary Development, 151 Fifth Avenue, New York City.

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Types of Service Suited to Unattached Clinics

1. *Infant welfare work, examination and supervision of well babies*: because of the simple equipment required, the desirability of proximity to the neighborhood served, and the freedom from contact with the sick which the unattached clinic provides.

2. *Prenatal examination and health supervision of the expectant mother*: same reasons as for the infant welfare service, although more emphasis should be laid on the desirability of affiliation between the unattached prenatal clinic and a hospital service.

3. *Health examinations for adults*: the unattached clinic can provide all needed equipment and, because of the small local volume of work that usually appears, can easily do it by appointment and give it a very personal character. There are considerable disadvantages, however, in the health examination of adults in an unattached clinic when the persons examined have many diseases or defects requiring treatment. The necessity of referring to other clinics all patients who cannot pay a private physician renders the unattached clinic much less advantageous for such groups than a health examination service in the out-patient department of a hospital. This is particularly true of the clients of relief agencies, among whom a very large proportion have immediate treatment needs.

4. *Health examinations for children*: the slight equipment and the advantages of localization render the unattached clinic useful for this purpose. The treatment needs of children are generally not so numerous as those of adults, so the disadvantage mentioned in the preceding paragraph is, while existent, not so weighty in this case.

5. *Dental prophylaxis* (mouth hygiene and related reparative service): because of the widespread need for the work, the impracticability of securing sufficient of it through out-patient departments or dental infirmaries, or, at present, through school clinics in New York, the advantages of localization, saving time and promoting the convenience of the children, and the convenience of follow-up and coordination with the local schools.

6. *Nutrition clinics*: a special study by one of the writers, made in conjunction with the New York Nutrition Council, led to the following conclusions, defining the respective functions of out-patient departments and unattached clinics in nutrition work:

The special function of the out-patient department or dispensary whose main activity is the care of disease, is in dealing with nutrition problems of specialized conditions, such as obesity, diabetes, rickets, tuberculosis, and in serving as a diagnostic agent for outside centers of nutrition work. The appropriate method is that of individual work with these patients. Such institutions as schools, settlements and health centers are fitted to deal primarily with the educational aspects of nutrition service to those not suffering from developed disease. The fact that such institutions are free in the minds of the general public from the compulsions necessary in the treatment of disease renders them especially appropriate for this phase of the work. While work with individuals is necessary to some extent, the class method proves effective and economical in dealing with the types of cases appropriate to the health center, the school and the settlement.

7. *Habit clinics*: assuming that the diagnosis of obscure or problem cases can be made in a specially equipped institution or clinic, the local unattached clinic can conduct a behavior or habit clinic for children advantageously. The long period of supervision renders localization convenient and the absence of contact with groups of sick persons is advantageous.

8. *Posture clinics*: appropriate in the unattached clinic provided the diagnosis of problem cases be made in a fully developed orthopedic clinic. For the carrying of the educational aspect of posture work the unattached posture clinic has advantages. Affiliation with an orthopedic clinic in an out-patient department is desirable.

We have observed the following services, primarily therapeutic, working satisfactorily in unattached clinics, which were careful to keep within certain limits:

9. *Minor surgery, simple dressings, etc.*: advantageous because of the conservation of working time of patients when the clinic is near their residence or place of work. Most such clinics are industrial.

10. *Medical cases*: treatment of minor medical conditions; advisable only when all cases are observed with sufficient care to refer those needing diagnosis and study to a fully equipped clinic (out-patient department).

11. *Eye-refraction*: when eye clinics in the out-patient departments are crowded, unattached clinics for refraction may be advisable in certain districts, because of their convenience to the patients served and the ease of supervising the follow-up to assure the actual securing and wearing of the glasses prescribed.

12. *Certain forms of therapy*: electrical and light therapy and massage are practicable in the unattached clinic when adequate medical supervision is obtainable. The frequency of treatments required renders proximity to patient's residence or place of work advantageous.

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The Department Store of Health

By C. F. WILINSKY, M. D.

IN business life we have seen an evolution resulting in the national institution of the department store, housing under one roof shopping opportunities varying from the needle and thimble to automobiles and house lots. In more recent years we have seen the birth, growth and development in the health and welfare field of the somewhat similar institution technically described as the health center, which has aptly been called the "department store of health."

Some health centers are institutions for the dissemination of health education only, while others may conduct a baby conference or a venereal clinic. Some may carry on the many functions of the health department, while others are miniature dispensaries. But as a result of the progress made in health-center development, we have come to accept as the ideal type the health center which combines all of the health agencies, public and private, as well as the welfare agencies, in a selected area, coordinating their activities to battle against disease with marked emphasis on prevention.

The health center movement in this country is about fifteen years old. It was first conceived to give health service to a group of people in a localized area, by Dr. W. C. White in Pittsburgh, Penn. A similar plan was adopted in Milwaukee, where emphasis was laid on child-welfare work in a definite area by Wilbur C. Phillips. In 1913 the New York Milk Committee established a health center in the Syrian district for little children. In Cincinnati, a definite area was taken up by tuberculosis nurses. In September, 1914, Dr. S. S. Goldwater, health commissioner of New York, formulated a plan and created a health center on the lower East Side followed by a similar one in Queens. From this grew a chain of twelve municipal health centers, with the formulation of plans for fifty-three in all. These were to be linked up closely with voluntary health and social agencies and promised adequate service to as nearly 100 per cent of the people as was humanly possible. Unfortunately, a change of administration nullified this splendid program. In Philadelphia, the Child Federation cooperated with the Health Department in the creation of health centers, concentrating strongly on infant-welfare work. In 1914, Buffalo opened five municipal health centers; in 1915 both Cleveland and Philadelphia developed additional centers; in 1916 the Blossom Street Health Unit was opened in Boston. By 1917 there were about a dozen health centers in large cities. There was a real growth in 1919 with 49 communities developing 72 centers, Cleveland with 7 and Philadelphia with 8 being notable contributions to health-center extension.

IN 1919, under direction of Dr. Livingston Farrand, the American Red Cross took up as a peace-time program the launching of the health center as a nationwide institution and local chapters of the Red Cross were urged to establish throughout their communities sound public health centers. Three hundred eighty-five were created, and today there are more than 1,000 health centers functioning in the United States. The health center has become the great local medium for the dissemination of the principles of preventive medicine.

Health centers vary in type. Some are demonstrations in which the entire health and welfare activities of a county are pooled, with the services available for the entire area. Alameda County, California, furnishes the most striking example of a county demonstration in which fifty-two health and social-welfare agencies are housed together.

Some health centers are centralized and others are decentralized. In small cities or towns where practically all of the health, social and welfare activities are housed in one health center, there is created a centralized type. In the larger cities there are decentralized activities with a chain of health centers serving various localities and a responsible administration in a central office. Philadelphia with 10, Cleveland with 7, and St. Louis with 10 are examples of decentralized health-center activities in large cities.

The ideal location of a health center is where the need is greatest for teaching the lessons of preventive medicine. In cities it will naturally be in that neighborhood where sanitation and hygiene is a great problem, where baby welfare must be emphasized, where improvement of housing conditions must be sought, where a campaign against tuberculosis is needed. It becomes the duty of the newly created health center to interest itself in every condition detrimental to the health of its neighborhood.

THE success of the individual center depends, of course, upon a proper organization with cooperation by all contributing health and welfare agencies, which must contribute solid moral support to plans carried out by a director in charge. He must be surrounded by a representative advisory committee, composed of people actively interested in the leading medical, nursing and welfare organizations in the city and district. The necessity for the cooperation of the physicians in the district cannot be emphasized too strongly. They should be freely consulted as to plans and policies and should have a part, if possible, in the preventive program.

The ideal principle at the present moment seems to be the dissemination of knowledge of the value of prevention of disease with marked emphasis on actual prophylaxis. Fundamentally we are trying to promote the health of the people and if we believe in the progressive principles of preventive medicine developed in recent years, we must adhere as closely as possible to a program which begins in giving the expectant mother proper prenatal instruction; upon the birth of a child, infant welfare guidance; after two years, the carrying of the youngster through the pre-school age period with proper instructions in which may be included principles of prophylactic dental service, diet and nutrition, mental hygiene and correct posture, so that we may be able to turn over to the school nurse and school physician, for their watchful care, a child physically able to cope with the class-room problems. In adolescence and adult life we must impress upon the individual the value and virtue of routine medical examinations. Emphasis must then be laid on careful living and proper hygiene.

The health center should link together the medical, nursing, social, instructive and charitable organizations in a

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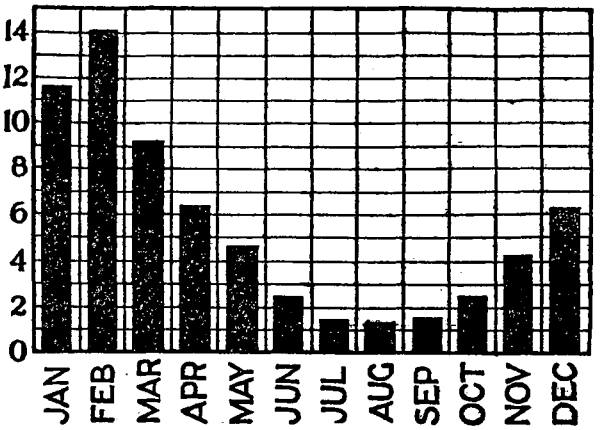
given district and try to create a clearing-house where preventive nursing, educational and relief work may be done with the least duplication of effort, friction or delay. It should establish the most cordial working relations between public and private health and welfare agencies, an important contribution in itself to health and social work.

The story of the Blossom Street Health Unit in Boston exemplifies some of the factors of coordination and cooperation which may be brought into play in a community health house. This unit, which was opened early in 1916, is supported and maintained by the Health Department of the city, with the Consumptives' Hospital Department, Instructive District Nursing Association, Milk and Baby Hygiene Association, and visiting physicians of the Boston Dispensary and the Hebrew Federated Charities.

All of these organizations were functioning in the district at the time the unit was organized, but they were scattered in different headquarters, with no two agencies housed under one roof. A call for a district physician for the poor had to be left at either a drug store or at a settlement house. A request for a visiting nurse had to be left at a church. A request for vaccination or other services of the Health Department had to be taken to the Chardon Street Home or the Health Department headquarters. The Boston Sanatorium nurses for consumptives had their headquarters at the Elizabeth Peabody House and at a private residence, and the Jewish Federated Charities had an office of their own in the district. The value of bringing these organizations, and subsequently others, together under one roof and correlating their activities can readily be appreciated. The response proved the long felt want for such a center.

An endeavor was immediately made to familiarize the resident population with the aims, endeavors, and purpose of the Health Unit, and health exhibits, baby shows, and lectures along medical lines were held from time to time with splendid results. Well-organized child health clinics to which the mother brings both the baby and the preschool-age child are being carried on. Pediatricians connected with the Harvard Medical School furnish the medical service and the clinic is used as a teaching center for students. Periodic health examinations for adults are being carried on with the general practitioners of the community participating in the work. In this way there is aroused not only a community interest in the relative value of the periodic health examination but the practicing physician is beginning to carry on this work as a part of the routine office practice, his interest, in a measure, created through this work at the health unit. The establishment of a habit clinic for preschool-age children is supplying a much needed want and perhaps aids the prevention of delinquency in the youngster. Dental, nutrition, and posture clinics are also conducted. A splendidly functioning bedside nursing service is carried on under the auspices of the Community Health Association. The unit is also the call-station of the district physician and the headquarters of the tuberculosis nurses. Welfare agencies of all creeds and denominations make the health units their headquarters.

The relative value of this work and the community's reaction to the first health unit in Boston perhaps may be measured by its extension to other sections of the city. Expansion was hastened by the decision of the George Robert White Fund (a most generous and munificent bequest of six million dollars to the City of Boston, to be used for the erection of works of public utility to serve the citizens) to erect a chain of health units where they appear to be most needed.



In March Look Out for Pneumonia

AS the windows go up, the deathrates from respiratory diseases go down. This graph, which summarizes the average number of reports of pneumonia by months in New Jersey from 1917 through 1925, is similar to the experience reported by the country as a whole. While it still is the open season for that disease, one may quote the general health advice fliply offered by the Ohio State Department of Health—"Keep your head up, your mouth shut, your feet dry—and walk on the sunny side of the street."

The North End Health Unit, the first to be erected from the income of this fund, has been functioning almost two years and is carrying on a similar program to that of Blossom Street. Upon its roof a decentralized preventorium is conducted during the summer for a group of malnourished children who have been exposed to tuberculosis. These youngsters spend the whole day on the roof in organized recreation, health education and rest. A decided improvement has been noted in them and it is planned to carry on this work on the roofs of all the units. The East Boston Health Unit has been recently dedicated and is actively at work; a third unit is being erected in South Boston, and plans have been made for at least three more.

Without desiring to stress too much the importance of comparisons of the death-rate in a community in which a health center is functioning and other sections where there are none, it is, nevertheless, a significant fact that cannot be overlooked that the reports of the East Harlem Health Center in New York City, the Halifax Health Center, the New Haven Health Center, as well as the Boston Health Center show a materially lower death-rate in that part of the city where the health center exerts its influence than in other similar neighborhoods.

Community organization in health and welfare makes it easier to "sell" preventive medicine to the homes reached by the health and social workers, whose influence is essential in teaching that it is much more logical and satisfactory to stay well by preventing disease than to risk the economic and other losses of a "break down" or even death.

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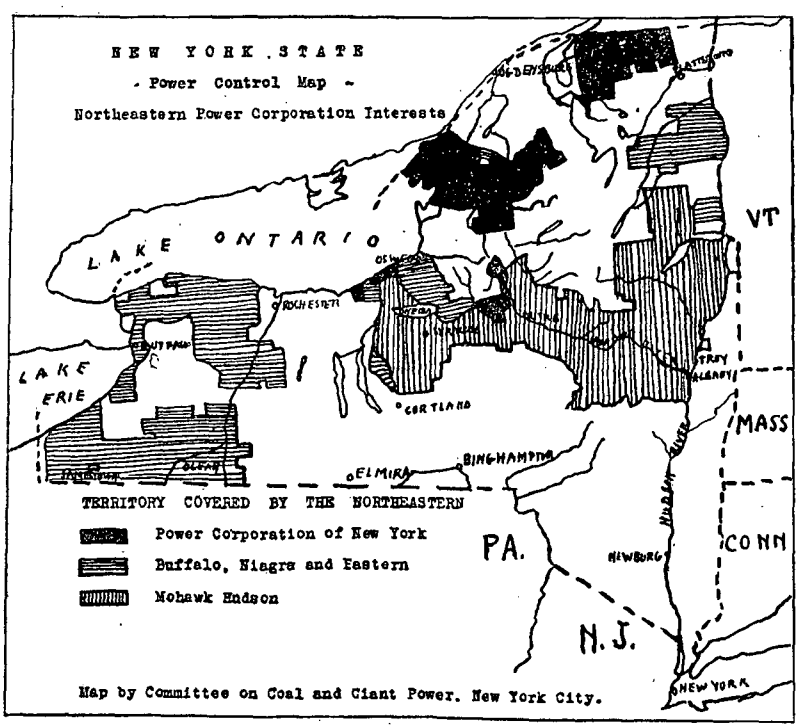
Low Votes and High Voltages

By ROBERT W. BRUÈRE

WHY don't the people turn out at the polls? Why, when issues are up that are bound to affect the cost of living, the public educational budget, the lives of workers in factories and of men, women and children in homes, do people keep their ears glued to the radio or jazz their lives up at the movie instead of exercising the high prerogative of enfranchised citizens? Are they just lazy, or stupid or indifferent? Is democracy a failure? Do Nordics like the south Latins need a big boss to wake them up, to put their household in order, to keep the public services running so that they will be services and not Juggernauts? Why, when they do vote, do they respond to slogans instead of using discriminating judgments?

There is probably no domestic issue before the American public today of more far-reaching social and economic significance than the disposition of our hydro-electric resources, since that will largely determine public policy with respect to the entire electric utility business. That the development of the electrical industry is bound to affect the future social and industrial life of the country as radically as the steam engine affected the life of the last generations is a fact so generally recognized as to be axiomatic. Indeed, its influence is certain to be more intimately pervasive because electrical energy penetrates directly into homes as well as into factories and railroads. The rapid electrification of the manufacturing industries is having a profound effect upon industrial relations. As the characteristic tool of our times, electricity is setting the pace of our lives and reshaping the character of our institutions, public as well as domestic. And yet in state after state, the development of the electrical utilities is being seriously complicated and retarded by legislative fumbling and a public opinion so muddled that it is easy victim to slogans when it does not simply take refuge in frustrated indifference. The St. Lawrence is hung up, the Colorado River pours millions of unharnessed horse-power through Boulder Canyon, Muscle Shoals becomes a symbol of governmental incompetence, and, in spite of the heroic efforts of Pennsylvania's Giant Power Survey Board, more millions of horsepower than any of these great streams could generate goes up in the smoke of Pennsylvania coal instead of flowing out over wires in the form of electricity.



But why blame the poor public? In the Atlantic Monthly for last November, Prof. William Z. Ripley put the electric utility situation under the microscope and attempted to set forth the a-b-c- facts which the public would have to know if called upon to pass judgment upon the moot question as to whether its interests would be best served by private or public ownership and development,—the question upon which the St. Lawrence and Muscle Shoals, for example, are snagged. Professor Ripley notes the increasing intensity with which all over the United States, and particularly during the last two years, great electric light and power systems have made a banyan growth. Forty-three per cent of the national central station output is enmeshed in the web of five of the largest holding companies.

The advantages of this holding-company form of organization, he says, have been persistently and elaborately set before the public for a decade. They are alleged to be among the triumphs of modern business organization, fruitful of the efficiencies of business in contrast with the inefficiencies of political government. They afford a wide distribution of risk, make for stability, provide more skillful administration on both the business and technical sides, yield economies in power production through provision of large central stations with interconnections for minimizing investment to meet peak load or emergency, provide for concentrated and more effective public relations services for dealing with public regulatory bodies and consumers through publicity flying squadrons and more competent legal staffs. But the holding-company organization

is highly provocative of unwarranted concentration of power. . . . A serious defect of overdeveloped holding-company organization is the temp-

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tation afforded to prestidigitation, double-shuffling, hornswoggling, and skullduggery. . . . Even with the best of intentions, the current kaleidoscopic transmogrifications are utterly thwarting to any attempt at comparisons from year to year. Attempting to deal with them reminds one of Lincoln's characterization of office-seekers: "Paton, did you ever try to shovel fleas?" . . . Inadequacy and "limitless obfuscation," that's what a lot of these perpetrations are.

Vigorous statements, which Professor Ripley, with due regard for the scholarly amenities, tempers by saying that "utility managements are less to blame for this overextended situation than are the people of the United States," since "corporations are often times compelled to resort to these artificial arrangements by the diversity of state laws—albeit perhaps not without a modicum of satisfaction that our conflicts of laws are so baldly permissive of profitable indirection." But why blame the public for a modicum of inexpertness in shoveling fleas?

If ever we are to have an informed public opinion such as would not only prompt voters to go to the polls but also to register discriminating judgment when they get there, shall we not have to develop public agencies to clear up the "limitless obfuscation" which now surrounds the high-voltage electrical industry, to its own hurt as well as the hurt of the consuming public? Hitherto public opinion has had little to feed on except high-powered partisan propaganda, designed not so much to enlighten as to arouse the herd instinct behind the bell-wethers. The time has gone by when so vast a problem can be adequately dealt with by the oversimplification of "public vs. private ownership." People begin to realize that what they need to deal with is not metaphysical systems but with techniques—the best ways of getting desired results. There are many situations where private enterprise is clearly most effective; others, as in the case of great municipal water supplies, where the nature of the service clearly prescribes public ownership and operation; others, as in the case of the railroads, where experience seems to indicate the advantages of a combination of public and private administration. Because the electrical utilities are so actively in politics, as witness the recent senatorial election in Illinois, governmental agencies have not been free to present the facts of the total situation in objectively comprehensive form and without reference to the transcendental claims of metaphysical theories. Indeed, they have occasionally so overplayed their influence as to tempt such a staid bulwark of the scientific spirit as the Smithsonian Institution to dabble in partisan propaganda. What the immediate occasion calls for is the intervention of non-partisan civic agencies with no axe to grind, no credalistic utopian slogan to put over—with a disinterested determination to aid public opinion toward a sober and discriminating judgment on the facts and the merits.

It was such a purpose that prompted the organization of the Committee on Coal and Giant Power, "a national group of economists, lawyers, engineers, labor leaders, publicists, and business men and women" who have just issued the report of their secretary. (50 cents. 70 Fifth Avenue, New York City.) Mr. Raushenbush propounds no doctrine to the effect that the function of government does or does not include the ownership and operation of the state's water-power resources in the sense that it includes the ownership and operation of the public schools. He sets this theoretical question to one side and affirms, with pretty convincing proof, just a few things.

First, that the concentration of financial control over the power companies of New York state, and specifically the concentration of over 90 per cent of the developed and 35 per cent of the undeveloped water-power of the state in the hands of one financial group, is a social fact worth looking at. Second, that "several developments have within the last few years challenged the adequacy, not only in New York but in almost all states, of the agencies we have set up to deal with our public utilities." Public service commissions have been so hamstrung in the exercise of their ostensible functions by certain court decisions, by their budgetary limitations—not unrelated to the fact that leading politicians divide their time between the offices of the utility companies and the legislative chambers—by the kaleidoscopic transmogrifications of holding companies, and by the helter-skelter expansion of the industry that

the regulatory system is no longer quite adequate to the new situation that confronts it to-day. . . . The development of the structure of the industry has been moving faster than the development of our regulatory system. The Public Service Commission is not adequately staffed. Its salaries are low. The accounting division in the principal office of the commission, probably its most important division, has in its employ no certified public accountant.

Corporations sometimes spend on single valuation or rate cases more than the commission's total annual budget, and while the commission is hampered on the ground of economy and in the interest of the taxpayer, the corporations are able to cover the costs of such litigation out of the rates charged to the consumer.

HERE again, following Professor Ripley, it may be said that the public is at fault for not adequately financing its own servants. But the circle is vicious. It does not come across with the money because it does not understand the need, and it does not understand the need because its servants are not financed to inform it. The result is that the situation is limitlessly obfuscated, to the hurt not only of the public but also the industry itself. For obfuscation breeds suspicion and blind hostility. A vast amount of money is spent in litigation, high-powered publicity and legalistic prestidigitation that should, under clearer skies, be available for improving the service and reducing rates. One of the most interesting of Mr. Raushenbush's findings is this:

The concentration of control in the hands of a few companies is supposed to result in economies and efficiencies which will be reflected in the rates charged to the consumers. In the six years from 1920 to 1925 the power industry as a whole reports an increase in production of 50.6 per cent, an increase in gross revenues of 66 per cent and a decrease in operating ratio of 21 per cent. Yet during this period average retail lighting rates have gone down only five mills, one-half cent, which is a decrease of 6.25 per cent from their 1920 level.

This report of the Committee on Coal and Giant Power deserves careful study by all parties at interest, on its own account and as a documentation of Professor Ripley's widely read article. Increasingly the electrical industry will become the subject of political discussion. It would be a tragedy if the expansion of this utility of utilities should be beset by the all-advised legislation, the speculative irresponsibility, the blind and often venal partisanship that for years made the railroads the football of anti-social or asocial forces. There is still time to work out a public policy that will avert the wastes of railroad development and establish new standards in the constructive relationships between industry and government.

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Jobs: A Day in the State Employment Office

By LILLIAN SYMES

"TWO freight handlers—three days' work. One ditch digger—"

Half a dozen men move closer to the counter that separates the offices of the men's department from the general assembly room and raise their hands. They are young men, shabbily dressed in old suit-coats and blue denim overalls, the usual costume of the casual day laborer. The placement worker calls them inside the counter, and they are briefly interviewed before being given their employment cards.

This is the department which opens first in the main New York City office of the State Employment Bureau. The men have been gathering on the first floor of the old building since seven-thirty. Those not chosen today will come back tomorrow and the day after. Some of the older men, those not capable of heavy lifting, of long hours of digging or pounding, will still be coming back next week. It is difficult to find light labor for an untrained man who is "not so strong."

The day-job calls are usually over by nine-thirty and the rest of the morning is given to the applicants for "steady jobs." In these cases more extended interviews are possible and a greater effort can be made to fit the man to the job. The applicants range from mere boys of eighteen to white-haired men of sixty. The majority of them are unskilled and semi-skilled. The highly skilled and unionized worker usually seeks employment through his union or directly on the job, or he can afford to pay the fee charged by the private agency.

Last year's records show, however, that the unorganized professional worker, including such groups as draughtsmen, engineers, teachers, as well as the untrained white-collar workers are using the State Employment Offices in increasing numbers.

There are applicants difficult to classify and individual problems which require much more than the routine attention which is part of the average day's work. Such was the case of the young French couple who suddenly appeared in the rather grimy atmosphere of the men's department. He was tall, good-looking and immaculately if a little shabbily clad. The girl was beautiful and in spite of the inexpensive simplicity of her blue sports coat and hat, as smartly distinguished as a fashion drawing in Vogue.

He was an architect and had come to America to find a place in a profession that was overcrowded and poorly paid in France. Since his arrival three months ago, he had been able to find nothing better than a position as architectural draughtsm at thirty-five dollars a week. Then a week ago his w and little boy had come from Paris to join him. She not speak English and had not been able to get work. Th could not live on his salary and now they turned to State Employment Office to help them find something gether—even in hotel or domestic service, in which th could earn a decent living and keep their child with the

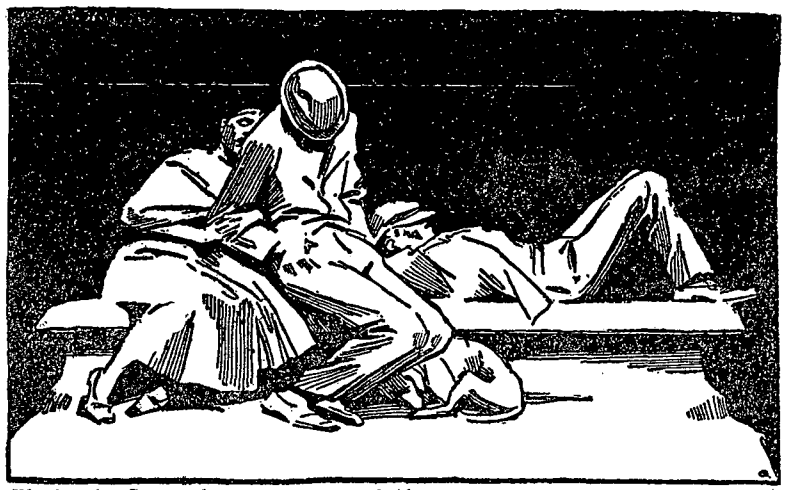
Upstairs in the Women's Department, the clerical wo ers, the hotel, restaurant and domestic workers and factory workers are gathered into three corners of huge room. The women who come here early each mo ing and who depend for a precarious living on irregu employment are almost all middle-aged. The youn women in this division are the colored workers and th are most in demand.

"One house-worker, two day's cleaning, 78th Stree The placement worker takes the order over the telepho "Any washing? Window cleaning? Yes, right awa She turns to the waiting group and asks, "Who's first?"

AS the calls for day workers continue to come in, darker section of the audience is rapidly depleted By nine o'clock, the residue of the applicants would se to be white and over fifty. They will take the odds ends of casual occupation that bring almost no return, they will come tomorrow and the next day waiting ph sophically for the better job that is "bound to turn up." T wage-rate in this division averages fifty cents an hour carfare, or three dollars and sixty cents for a full day. irregularity of employment, however, makes the monthly yearly earnings less than those of the more poorly p factory job.

In the corner devoted to women factory workers, placement worker has difficulty in filling the demands help. The skilled factory worker is usually unionized has little need of the state's services. Among the unski younger women there is a growing reluctance to ente factory and equal determination to seek office work.

It is in the clerical vision, both juvenile adult, that the dem for jobs hopelessly numbers the jobs to had. The trained s ographer, bookkeeper file clerk can be ea placed, but there is army of girls and wo with inadequate b ground and practic no training who bes the bureau for o work. On the t floor of the main of where clerical applic under eighteen



Woodcut by Garvan for the Amalgamated Almanac
UNEMPLOYED

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handled, the placement worker in charge is often able to divert the ambition of an aspiring file clerk into more suitable and possibly more profitable channels.

Sadie Kaplan was sixteen. She had finished grammar school and for two years had attended continuation school while working at odd jobs and helping around the house. Now she wanted "something regular, in an office."

"Do you type very rapidly, Sadie?" she was asked.

Sadie hesitated. "Not so awful fast, but I'd be willing to do anything in an office that paid twelve dollars a week."

It was obvious that Sadie in her present stage of development was mentally, temperamentally and sartorially unfitted for a business office. The placement worker suggested a job as packer in a perfume establishment. But Sadie didn't want to be a packer—it smacked of factory work. Then the placement worker told Sadie about the last girl who had held this job. She had been persuaded to become a packer and to study stenography at night school. Last week, when a vacancy had occurred in her firm's office, she had obtained it, at twenty dollars a week. Sadie went off with her employment card and applied for the packer's place.

The juvenile work of the State Employment Office in New York City is carried on largely through the continuation schools. The state law provides that all working children between the ages of 14 and 17 who have not completed a four-year high school course must attend continuation school four hours a week. The employment department maintains a full time worker in each of these schools. The young applicant who comes to the main juvenile office looking for a job must first have secured an employment certificate, and a certification of age and health. At nine o'clock in the morning the line of applicants outside the certification office reaches down the winding stairs of the building from the fourth floor to the sidewalk outside. Many of these boys and girls find their own jobs by answering newspaper advertisements or by personal solicitation of stores and factories. The rest register in the employment office.

In the girls' room the new applicants sit in long rows, coming forward one by one as the placement worker calls their numbers—girls big or little, smart or shabby, embarrassed or indifferent, dull or precocious, and almost without exception seeking office work. The same thing goes on in the boys' room. While the jobs offered to the new worker are usually those of office boy, shipping clerk's helper or packer the wages paid are equal to those of the experienced but unskilled workers in many factories, averaging about twelve dollars a week. Among the boys, the favored career is that of automobile mechanic. The glamor of romance which once surrounded the calling of railway engineer has now descended upon the greasy role of motor-repairer.

An effective follow-up system has been established in the juvenile department. The applicant who takes a job must report back to the employment office two weeks later; six months later a letter is sent to find out whether he is still working and how he is getting on. Every Friday evening follow-up meetings are held in the continuation schools. The boys and girls are urged to attend, to discuss their work, to report violations of the child labor or sanitary code on the part of their employers and to receive advice from the placement worker in charge.

The State of New York, through its Department of Labor, went into the employment business in January, 1915, "to bring together without charging any fee, workers seeking employment and employers needing help," a field of delicate social adjustment which up to that time had been a matter of private commercial enterprise. Today a steady stream of human material pours through each of the twelve offices of the bureau, representing every branch of industrial activity and every type of human development. During the year ending June 30, 1925, 157,004 of these workers found jobs through the State Employment Offices.

While no "employment problem" exists at this time, three groups of workers present a perennial placement difficulty. These are: The middle-aged and untrained man who is physically unable to do heavy work; the young white collar worker, with no special training for anything; the middle-aged woman with children.

A day in the State Employment Offices would supply drama for a dozen novelists. Each case has its unique aspects, its own background of humor or tragedy. The future development of the employment service idea may take into consideration these individual needs and the possibility of their approximate fulfillment.

Benzol Hazards

THAT chronic benzol poisoning is produced in "virtually one out of every three women" exposed to its fumes in factory work is the conclusion reached by a study of Chronic Benzol Poisoning Among Women Industrial Workers, soon to be released by the Bureau of Women in Industry, New York Labor Department. The report is typical of surveys, scientific in spirit and method, undertaken by labor departments, representing the public stake in industry, to determine actual industrial conditions. Such studies supply the factual basis for pleas for "better working conditions," yet similar research projects have heretofore had no place on the union program. The first ground-breaking on labor's part in this direction was the significant Resolution 68 passed by the Detroit meeting of the American Federation of Labor (see The Survey, Dec. 15, page 374).

As the basis for the present study, Adelaide Ross Smith, M.D., medical adviser to the bureau, investigated six typical factories using benzol compounds, where 79 women workers were exposed to the fumes, either using benzol compounds themselves or working in the room where such compounds were used. In this group, Dr. Smith found 25 workers, or 32 per cent, who "showed blood changes sufficiently marked to indicate clearly that benzol poisoning was present."

Benzol is one of the best known solvents for gums, resins, and fats, and hence it is found in various cements used in making hats, shoes and rubber articles. It is also used in making artificial leather and is found in numerous shellacs, lacquers and quick-drying paints. Of the six factories studied, "one manufactured tires and rubber goods, one cameras, one shoes and three sanitary tin cans."

In addition to the characteristic changes in the blood picture of victims of benzol poisoning, Dr. Smith found the "commonest early manifestations" are "headache, excessive fatigue, dizziness, nausea, loss of appetite, nervousness and disturbances of sensation."

The condition may remain stationary at a more or less mild chronic stage in which the above symptoms persist for years or it may go on to the development of more serious ones quite suddenly. These may be loss of weight, severe abdominal

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pain, nausea, shortness of breath and a tendency to bleeding.

Dr. Smith points out that besides the anemia resulting from decreased red blood corpuscles when benzol poisoning occurs, there is "diminished resistance to infection" as the result of white cell reduction. "The normal defensive power against disease of each of these workers has been lessened due to the circumstances of her work."

The study gives a detailed history of the uses of benzol and of benzol poisoning as a recognized industrial hazard, as well as a medical report on all the positive and suspected cases found in the course of the investigation. The study concludes in part that

benzol used in the industries investigated produces chronic poisoning in virtually one out of every three women. The risk of poisoning is not limited to those who work directly with benzol; but workers who are indirectly exposed through merely working in rooms where benzol is used are subject to its effect also. Among women who do not show definite signs of poisoning, about one third suffer from symptoms most of which in all probability are caused by exposure to benzol.

The recommendations based on this study are, first, "more thorough knowledge of the characteristics of benzol and a franker attitude on the part of the employers toward the risk involved in its use. . . . Chronic benzol poisoning occurs as commonly as it does largely through ignorance on the part of those responsible for its use. The risk attending exposure to benzol should be frankly recognized by the firm and workers should be warned of the possible danger to their health."

Two specific safeguards against benzol poisoning should be established in every plant where benzol is used: "Efficient systems of local exhaust ventilation" and "thorough and persistent medical supervision of exposed workers." Finally, Dr. Smith urges that

wherever possible substitutes for benzol should be used. Satisfactory experiments with substitutes . . . have been carried on in several of the factories since this investigation was made, proving that in certain operations the traditional use of benzol has been unnecessary. It would seem wise, therefore, never to use benzol in such a way that workers will be exposed to its fumes until exhaustive experiments have proved that nothing else can take its place.

WITH the return to work of the strikers of the Gera Worsted Mills and the New Jersey Worsted and Spinnery Company, the year-long textile strike in Passaic comes to an end (see The Survey, April 1, page 10). Only the employes of a dye works who struck at the same time as the textile operatives are still out. A letter from the vice-president of the New Jersey Worsted and Spinnery, who signed for both mills, which served as the basis of settlement, pledged the mill management to a policy of no discrimination against their workers "because of belonging or not belonging to any legitimate organization." "This is the best we can get for you," James A. Starr, vice-president of the textile local, told the strikers, and added: "I believe, brothers and sisters, it would be foolish to prolong this strike, to keep the good men and women who have been on the picket line all these months going back and forth on the picket line if no good end is to be served thereby." Gustav Deak, president of the labor organization, announced the plan of the local, after the year of industrial warfare, to form and maintain a strong union "in every textile mill in Passaic and vicinity, those that were not affected by the strike as well as those that went on strike."

New Pamphlets

FARM ECONOMICS. *New York Federation of Progressive Women. 15 E. 40 St., New York.*

In fifteen pages this catechism gives an astonishingly complete picture of a complex field, including a highly intelligent bibliography.

THE CONSUMERS' CO-OPERATIVE MOVEMENT, *by Edward A. Norman. Workers' Education Bureau of America, 476 West 24 Street, New York. Price, 15 cents.*

"A brief review of consumers' co-operation," and a very complete reading list.

RUSSIAN WORKERS AND WORKSHOPS IN 1926, *by William Z. Foster. The Trade Union Educational League, 156 W. Washington St., Chicago. Price, 25 cents.*

A highly readable "report of a visit to mills, mines and factories in the Soviet Union" from the Communist point of view.

SPECIAL INVESTIGATION OF CHILDREN IN INDUSTRY ATTENDING PART-TIME SCHOOL, *by Ellen M. Rourke, State Factory Inspector. Bureau of Labor, Des Moines, Iowa.*

"The investigation was undertaken to gain a more comprehensive knowledge of the reasons that cause children to quit full-time school between the ages of fourteen and sixteen years to go to work."

ARE RADICALS CRAZY? *by Stuart Chase. L. I. D. Leaflet No. 2. The League for Industrial Democracy. 70 Fifth Ave., New York. Price, 5 cents.*

"An analysis of their main tenets in the light of modern science."

DIRECT METHOD OF DETERMINING CYCLICAL FLUCTUATIONS OF ECONOMIC DATA, *by Martin Allen Brumbaugh. University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia.*

This writer treats it as "a purely statistical problem." He sets up a method of measuring the cyclical movements existing in business data and then applies it to actual cases "to demonstrate its workableness."

HANDBOOK OF AMERICAN TRADE-UNIONS, *compiled by Estelle M. Stewart, U. S. Department of Labor. Bulletin of the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics No. 420. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.*

A list of all the existing labor organizations of the United States, giving for each one its relation to the A. F. of L.; a brief history of its origin and growth; its jurisdiction, trade and territorial; form of government; qualifications for membership; apprentice system; method of negotiating agreements; benefits; official organ; address; extent of organization; total membership.

CHILDREN'S COMPENSATION FOR INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS: A PRELIMINARY STUDY, *by Florence Kelley and Dorothy W. Meyers. National Consumers' League, 156 Fifth Ave., New York.*

Existing laws for the protection of young workers and a discussion of what they mean in terms of actual experience.

LOST TIME AND LABOR TURNOVER IN COTTON MILLS. *Bulletin of the Women's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor, No. 52. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.*

"A study of the cause and extent of lost time and labor turnover among women workers in cotton mills," against a clearly drawn background of mill towns and conditions and the processes involved in the manufacture of cotton cloth.

SAFETY ORGANIZATIONS AND ACCIDENT STATISTICS. *Special Bulletin No. 15, Pennsylvania Department of Labor and Industry, Harrisburg.*

Three plans of safety organization for plants employing 25 or more workers, all centered around the workmen's committee, "which has been found to be the most effective in the majority of industries."

HUMAN RELATIONS IN INDUSTRY. *Industrial Department, Y.M.C.A., 347 Madison Avenue, New York. Price, 40 cents.*

A report of the Silver Bay conference, 1926, at which 532 delegates from 90 cities and 3 foreign countries, representing capital, labor and the public, met together to discuss mutual problems.

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"Friction of Space" Among 20,000,000

By GEDDES SMITH

IN Fargo, North Dakota, the other day, I saw some imperturbable Scandinavian-Americans ski-jumping. They toiled up a long flight of steps, shot down a slide, sailed through the air, landed on snow-covered earth a hundred feet below, and slid smoothly down the rest of the incline. I asked a grizzled veteran of many contests what he actually did at the moment of take-off to gain distance. "Why," he said, "I *yump*."

The Committee on a Regional Plan for New York and Its Environs has been toiling up its enormous hill for some four years (see The Survey, March 20, 1922) and it is getting mighty close to the take-off. Its friends are watching eagerly to see how it will "yump."

The annual report of progress which the Committee is just publishing forecasts the issuance, in the early months of 1928, of the final plan, on a specially prepared map showing New York and its environs on a scale of 2,000 feet to the inch. Most of the present report deals with the mounting toil of research and exploration to which the last four years have been devoted —years so full of fact-gathering and meticulous inquiry that more than one observer has wondered how much of all this accumulation the plan could carry when it came to the plunge. There can be no doubt, at least, of the importance of such studies as Robert M. Haig's summary volume on economic and industrial factors and trends in the region, which is "in its final stages of completion," and there should be much interest in the long-promised "density studies," which link the effect of sunlight and orientation on the occupants of buildings with a new plan for controlling building bulks. A monograph on the Relations of Housing to Regional Planning, also being made ready for publication, should be as timely as it is germane to the central purpose of the whole project—"the betterment of living conditions."

The most interesting feature of the report, and one which perhaps presages most clearly how the committee will "yump," is a set of "basic principles and assumptions underlying the regional plan." To quote them in full is impossible, for they fill some six or seven pages of the report, and to summarize them is unfair, for they are themselves a carefully worded summary of much cogitation and discussion. Students of planning and those who care about the future of New York will study the full text, and I shall merely mention, snatching them from their context, some points which seem to me of special interest.

To the first of the basic assumptions I have already referred: the purpose of the plan is the betterment of living conditions. The improvement of housing should include "the erection of dwellings on comparatively cheap land in outlying areas, made accessible for this purpose . . ." and the opening up of traffic ways and the provision of more open spaces to improve deteriorated and overcrowded central areas. But "living conditions consist of means of livelihood as well as wholesome housing and recreation. Where the needs of business conflict with those of residence, a balance may have to be struck. For instance some degree of concentration of dwellings, which may not be unhealthy, may be a necessary concomitant to business. . . ."

A little further on we read: "The reasonable degree of concentration for business purposes that is desirable is that which will enable industry and business to function efficiently . . ." and this is developed in a section which should be quoted in full:

There is an increasing tendency in the region towards creating more "friction of space" (i. e., a greater degree of sepa-

Drawing by A. Walkowitz Courtesy Our Gallery, New York

THE NEW YORK OF THE FUTURE

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ration measured in terms of time, cost, discomfort, fatigue) between homes and places of work, which is injurious to both living conditions and business. Whatever may be said for or against what are called "centralization" and "decentralization," these terms should be avoided as they lead to confusion of thought. What is clearly desirable, in connection with the distribution of population and industry, is more even growth, a better balance between industry and residence, so that people may live nearer to their places of employment, a wider distribution of building bulks, and more space about buildings for all purposes throughout the city and the region. This may be promoted by encouraging the redistribution of functions (i. e., parts of industries) to the extent that is economically desirable, and by such measures as improved systems of transportation, more control of land development in the environs, greater stringency of zoning restrictions, and adequate measures to restrain the improper use of unhealthy or deteriorated structures in old sections of the city.

"The improved systems of transportation," it appears, should "encourage the by-passing of the most crowded centers and also promote more circumferential growth as a means of lessening overcrowding of land along radial lines of transportation." Moreover, such circumferential transportation, along with developments in power distribution, will encourage manufacturers to move away from crowded centers. In the now undeveloped sectors between the spokes of the wheel, which will thus be opened up, "opportunities will occur . . . for the promotion of new communities with varied industries," and "one or more of these should be artificially promoted and intelligently planned in advance as models of development." Here is a definite and welcome forecast of a garden city.

There is another interesting passage elsewhere in the report dealing with this question of concentration. Early in the course of the Russell Sage study, Raymond Unwin was called from London to advise the committee. He made a forthright plea for what he called decentralization. Here is what the present report has to say of it:

Mr. Unwin's insistence on decentralization as a guiding hypothesis has been questioned by other students of city congestion. Undoubtedly it is open to the qualification that centralization is desirable up to a certain point and in certain directions. The term decentralization itself leads to confusion of thought but so far as it means that a more even distribution of population, a better balance between open and built areas, and an improved localization of industry is desirable within the region, and so far also as it is not intended to question the value of a rational degree of concentration, it may be accepted as sound.

WHAT then is New York to look forward to? "There is no want of land," we read, "to enable 20,000,000 to live in spacious surroundings within twenty or twenty-five miles of Manhattan." By comparison with this, the proposal of the staff to plan for a prospective population of 20,000,000 in the entire region by the year 1965 seems moderate. Here is the trajectory of the "yump": by the application of forethought in those parts of the region where forethought still has a chance, and afterthought in those parts which are now pretty far gone, and by spreading us and our multiplying neighbors around "within the region," we are to make it possible for the expected community of 20,000,000 souls—more than double the present population—to live and work decently and with "ample spaciousness" in New York and its environs some forty years hence.

Such a prospect and such a definition of decentralization—a decentralization confined within a 50-mile circle—will arouse little enthusiasm among those who define regional planning in bolder terms. Regardless of the way in which the twenty millions may be disposed within the region, do they belong in the region at all? Perhaps American cities, as one astute planner has pointed out, are past their stage of rapid growth now that immigration is checked and the farm population is drained almost to the bottom of the bucket, and should readjust their expectations. Perhaps the economic and even the cultural interests of the nation would be served best by the growth of other centers at the expense of New York. Perhaps New York itself has grown to a point where reasonable concentration has long since been buried out of sight and beyond recovery, and where the arrears of accumulated inconveniences, nuisances and wastes have become too vast for any rational Hercules to clear away. Perhaps the Frankenstein is out of hand. In any case, the postulate of continued concentration of population in the New York region needs the sharpest kind of critical examination—and doesn't get it here.

NOW it would be manifestly unfair to judge the still incomplete plan, as a technical product, by these preliminary assumptions. It may prove to be shrewd, skillful, constructive; and radical suggestions may lie concealed behind some of the exceedingly tactful phrases used in the present report—such as "greater stringency of zoning restrictions." But it is fair, I think, to take these general principles as a clue to the ideas which will underly the plan and will be put forward in explanation of it, and to ask what sort of psychological impact they will have on the public. For the plan must stand or fall not alone by the degree to which its detailed recommendations are accepted by the motley group of towns, cities, boroughs, counties and what-not to which they will be offered, but by the way it alters or fails to alter the currents of public understanding and desire. It may be more important to change the way New York thinks about itself—by a vigorous presentation of dynamic, even revolutionary ideas—than to lay out a thousand highways and define a thousand use areas. What sort of thinking is likely to be stirred up by these basic principles?

What does New York want for itself now? It wants the profits it has learned how to squeeze out of congestion—skyscrapers, strap-hangers, and all the rest—preferably without the accompanying inconveniences, but with them if necessary. It has, I fear, little interest in the distinction between reasonable and unreasonable concentration: it is hell-bent for all the concentration it can collect dividends on. Will not the tenderness of the planners for the reasonable variety be interpreted—however unjustly—as a defense of things as they are? Speculative profits talk louder than economic theory. In the long run, perhaps, the wastes of congestion will shout down the adding machines, but the going is still pretty good for what a distinguished city planner has aptly described as the vilest animal he knows—the "real estate Babbitt."

What is New York thinking about in the way of planning? Bridges and tunnels to bring more people in. A speedway down the river front that will deliver thousands of cars every hour into a section of the city already palsied and all but paralyzed by the choking of street traffic. A bus system that will multiply in geometric ratio the "friction of space" which the present report so justly deplores. Harvey Corbett's grotesque super-city fills the papers. It is not wholly accidental—even in the naïve Evening Post—

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that an article on the Russell Sage project some months ago should have carried the subhead: "Committee to report soon on congestion and other features of planning for city 10 or 20 years from now." It is the greater, more complicated, more costly city of the future that catches the imagination of the man in the street and tickles the fancy of the realtor. Is it possible to wean New York from such poisonous toys by striking a judicious balance between just enough concentration and not too much? I doubt it.

Of course, the committee faces a practical problem. If you believe—as it is easy to believe—that New York is going to keep on growing willy-nilly, it is practical to guide that growth as sensibly as possible. Perhaps that is all that human intelligence can do. But when I read the words of Daniel H. Burnham, quoted often by Charles D. Norton and again by the director of the Russell Sage planning staff—"Make no little plans; they have no magic to stir men's blood. . . . Make big plans"—I wonder if we must be content, after five years' investment of wealth and skill, with nothing bolder, more stirring, more radical if you will, than an orderly dilution of New York over a fifty-mile circle with double its present load of humanity.

The Slum Endures

By NELS ANDERSON

MAN has never built a city of a hundred thousand or more population that did not have slums, those residence quarters from which people flee if they can, where they stay if they lack vision and into which they gravitate if the fates are against them. Every city has its area of poor housing and poverty where society decays like the structures the people inhabit. We Americans talk a great deal and write no little about abolishing our slums. Here in New York, for instance, there have been hundreds of housing surveys and scores of programs for slum clearance. We have considered seriously every proposed solution from transporting the poor to the country to model housing. Yet we have made no impression on the slums.

Obviously most of this talk is meaningless. The slum is here to stay in spite of the building codes and housing schemes. It is as fundamentally native to the city as the back-yard to the country home. It can no more be wiped out by reform programs than Broadway or the Fashion Center can be legislated out of existence. It is an incident in the building of the city, created by the same general process that gives us Park Avenue and Chinatown. Nor is it too much to label it one of the functional units in the general arrangement of urban life. It is no more the creature of caprice or design than any other area. Neither can it be eliminated by design.

The slum we know is relatively new. It was discovered by humanitarians, popularized by fiction writers and news reporters, and wrestled with by housing experts and social workers. Whether it gets worse or better we can't say, but it has been the object of a considerable amount of emotionalism and unclear thinking. So well has the slum been press-agented that slumming has become a popular and profitable pastime. Slumming is such a craze, in fact, that it carries through the twenty-four hours of the day. There is the daylight crowd looking for sentiment and souvenirs, the white-light crowd dining in colorful restaurants till midnight, and the red-light crowd burning the candle at both ends till dawn. There is another emotional class who feel that the slum is a sore spot on the body urban, and they hope by organized effort to be rid of it. That is a big order and pathetically naïve.

THE more we know of all the types of slums the more we realize they are sewed in and interwoven with the larger life of the city. They are segments of that larger life but in no sense isolated. Hobohemia is the most doleful of slums because of its womanless nature. It is an outcast province for hobos, tramps and bums ranging from the never-sweats to the ardent but hapless odd-job workers. They are the reserves in the labor market, like gold in the money market. By some strange coincidence the hobo area in most cities is side by side with the banking area. The hobo is the emergency man when short-stake hands are needed for the harvests, the woods; for fishing and building. But he fills emergencies in city life, shoveling snow, working as Santa Claus at Christmas, cleaning yards in the spring. When not needed, he is conveniently tucked away in these characteristic slums for men.

Equally native to the city is the childless couple, in fact urban life rewards the childless couple. Of these there are many varieties from the bon tons on the avenues to the denizens of the back streets, the people who live in suit-cases and feed out of paper sacks. The light-housekeeping slum is the center of chaotic, anonymous, tradition-destroying life. It is restless and transient. Speculation is high, energy is dissipated, the present is paramount. Youth is king in these sections, so convention waits. Frequently there is vice and crime. Low-priced white-collar workers, waitresses and shop girls, the peasants from the American hinterland, the young hopefuls from the freshwater colleges are numerous among the inhabitants. The houses were once the homes of the middle and upper-middle class but now the landlady has converted them into diminutive rooms and takes toll of all who pass. New York's Chelsea on the West Side is such an area and parts of Greenwich Village.

THE slums which disturb us are those occupied by the families of small income. Perhaps two million of the inhabitants of metropolitan New York dwell in such areas. Family slums are of many types; those inhabited by natives, those occupied by different national groups and those that are racial, of which Harlem is outstanding. No white slum in the city is more congested or poverty-burdened than some quarters of New York's black belt. For domestic help, for charwomen, for housemen this is the source of supply. What a tragedy to Manhattan if Harlem were moved twenty miles out!

The slum settles where old buildings abound, where rents are low but where space values tend to rise. It is a period in house occupation, the (*Continued on page* 829)

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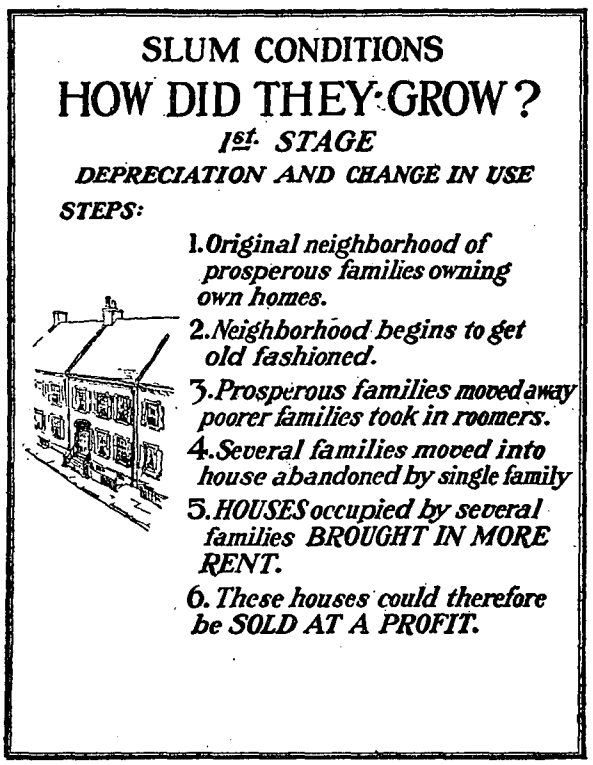
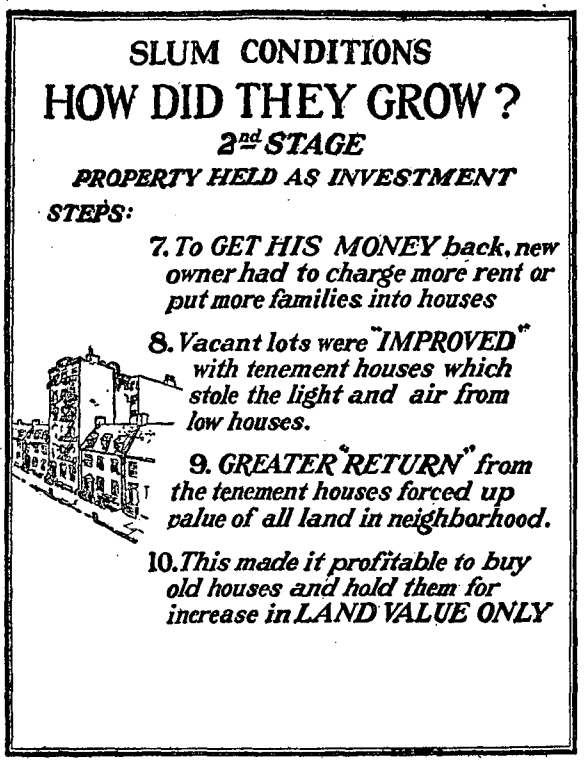
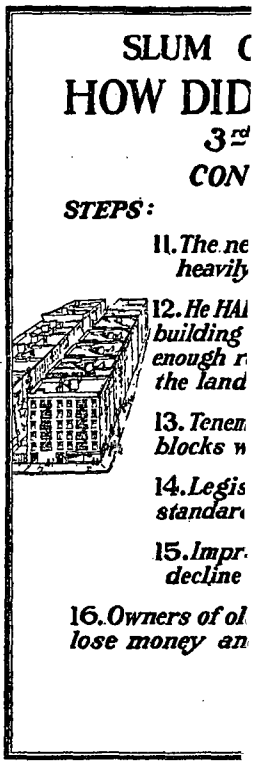
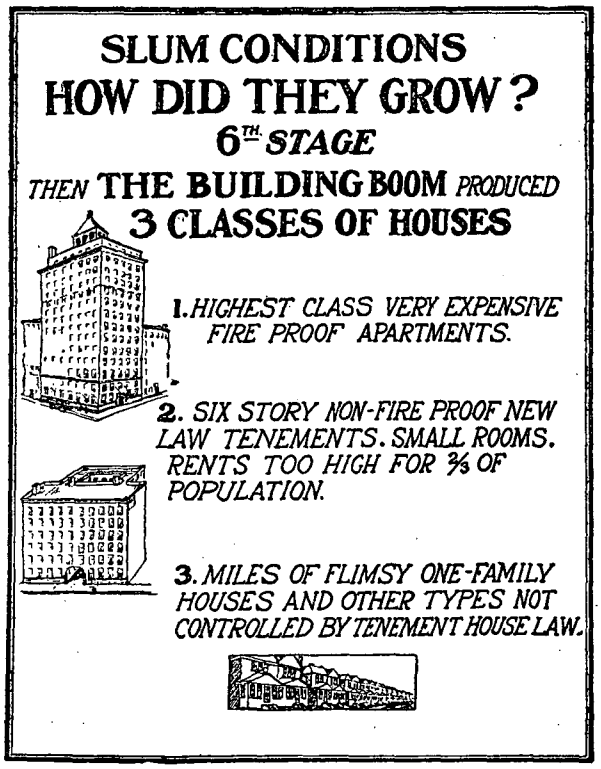

SLUM CONDITIONS
HOW DID THEY GROW?
1st. STAGE
DEPRECIATION AND CHANGE IN USE
STEPS:
1. Original neighborhood of prosperous families owning own homes.
2. Neighborhood begins to get old fashioned.
3. Prosperous families moved away poorer families took in roomers.
4. Several families moved into house abandoned by single family
5. HOUSES occupied by several families BROUGHT IN MORE RENT.
6. These houses could therefore be SOLD AT A PROFIT.


SLUM CONDITIONS
HOW DID THEY GROW?
2nd STAGE
PROPERTY HELD AS INVESTMENT
STEPS:
7. To GET HIS MONEY back, new owner had to charge more rent or put more families into houses
8. Vacant lots were "IMPROVED" with tenement houses which stole the light and air from low houses.
9. GREATER "RETURN" from the tenement houses forced up value of all land in neighborhood.
10. This made it profitable to buy old houses and hold them for increase in LAND VALUE ONLY



Text and illustrations from The Primer of Housing, by Arthur C. Holden, in collaboration with Henry Wright, chairman of the Committee on Community Planning of the American Institute of Architects, and Clarence S. Stein, formerly chairman of the New York State Commission on Housing and Regional Planning. Preface by William J. Tracy, secretary-treasurer of the Building Trades Department of the American Federation of Labor. Published by the Workers' Education Bureau Press, 476 W. 24 St., New York.


SLUM CONDITIONS
HOW DID THEY GROW?
6TH STAGE
THEN THE BUILDING BOOM PRODUCED
3 CLASSES OF HOUSES
1. HIGHEST CLASS VERY EXPENSIVE FIRE PROOF APARTMENTS.
2. SIX STORY NON-FIRE PROOF NEW LAW TENEMENTS. SMALL ROOMS. RENTS TOO HIGH FOR ⅔ OF POPULATION.
3. MILES OF FLIMSY ONE-FAMILY HOUSES AND OTHER TYPES NOT CONTROLLED BY TENEMENT HOUSE LAW.

Seven Stages in t

IN order to realize how a bad neighborhood got to b a bad neighborhood we must look back first to th time when it was newly built up and try to understan what happened that made it start on the road to dilapi dation. The first picture shows the attractive ol homes which were typical in New York City in 1820. Th second stage of real estate development begins whe property acquires a value for use beyond what its owne enjoys. He therefore "holds" it, hoping that it will gro more valuable. Then he sells it. The new owner has to ge enough money in rents to cover carrying charges; one wa is to erect higher buildings on the land. Each owner o course tries to get as much out of his land as possible, s where land is valuable he builds as much as he can on hi lot. Each shuts out the other's light. As the neighborhoo becomes less desirable, either rents must fall or the house must hold more people. The result is room congestion.

Then comes expansion to cheap land. Those who g first to new districts have to put up with inconvenience such as fewer theaters and markets, longer travel and u paved streets, but they get the newest type of houses an sometimes cheaper rents, and usually plenty of light an air because of the great number of vacant lots.

The war had a disastrous effect upon housing. Price rose. Tenement houses couldn't be built at all except fo people who could pay comparatively high rents. Aroun the large cities there was a rush for the suburbs wher restrictions were less and where small frame houses coul

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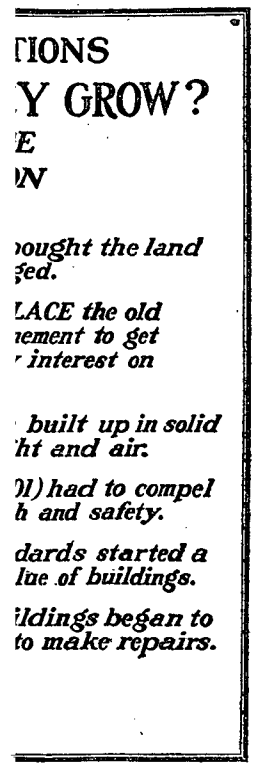
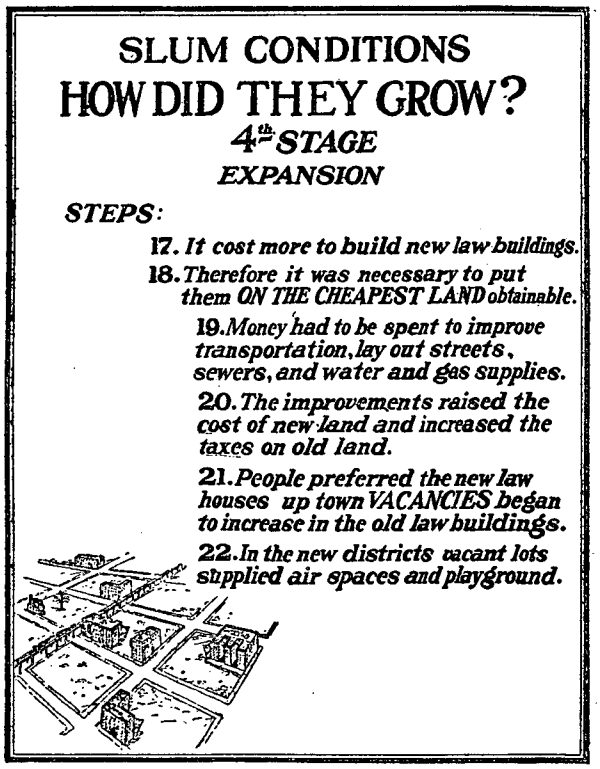
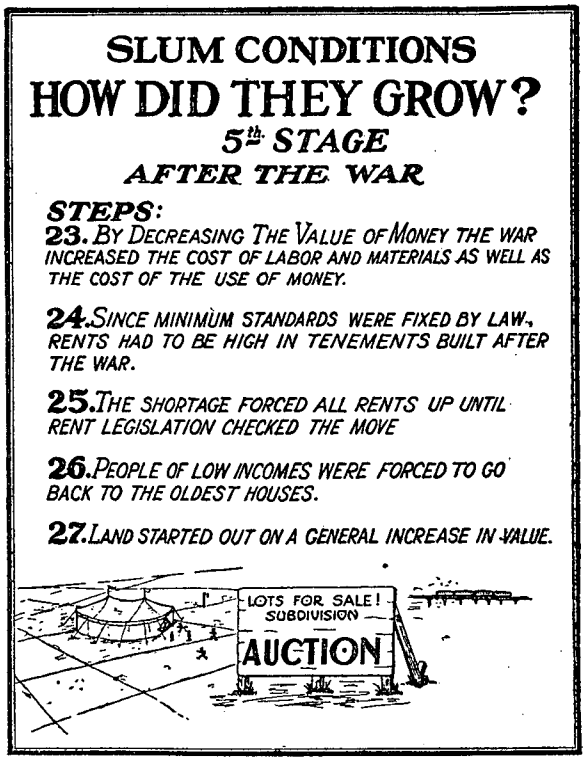



SLUM CONDITIONS
HOW DID THEY GROW?
4th STAGE
EXPANSION
STEPS:
17. It cost more to build new law buildings.
18. Therefore it was necessary to put them ON THE CHEAPEST LAND obtainable.
19. Money had to be spent to improve transportation, lay out streets, sewers, and water and gas supplies.
20. The improvements raised the cost of new land and increased the taxes on old land.
21. People preferred the new law houses up town VACANCIES began to increase in the old law buildings.
22. In the new districts vacant lots supplied air spaces and playground.


SLUM CONDITIONS
HOW DID THEY GROW?
5th STAGE
AFTER THE WAR
STEPS:
23. BY DECREASING THE VALUE OF MONEY THE WAR INCREASED THE COST OF LABOR AND MATERIALS AS WELL AS THE COST OF THE USE OF MONEY.
24. SINCE MINIMUM STANDARDS WERE FIXED BY LAW, RENTS HAD TO BE HIGH IN TENEMENTS BUILT AFTER THE WAR.
25. THE SHORTAGE FORCED ALL RENTS UP UNTIL RENT LEGISLATION CHECKED THE MOVE
26. PEOPLE OF LOW INCOMES WERE FORCED TO GO BACK TO THE OLDEST HOUSES.
27. LAND STARTED OUT ON A GENERAL INCREASE IN VALUE.
LOTS FOR SALE!
SUBDIVISION
AUCTION

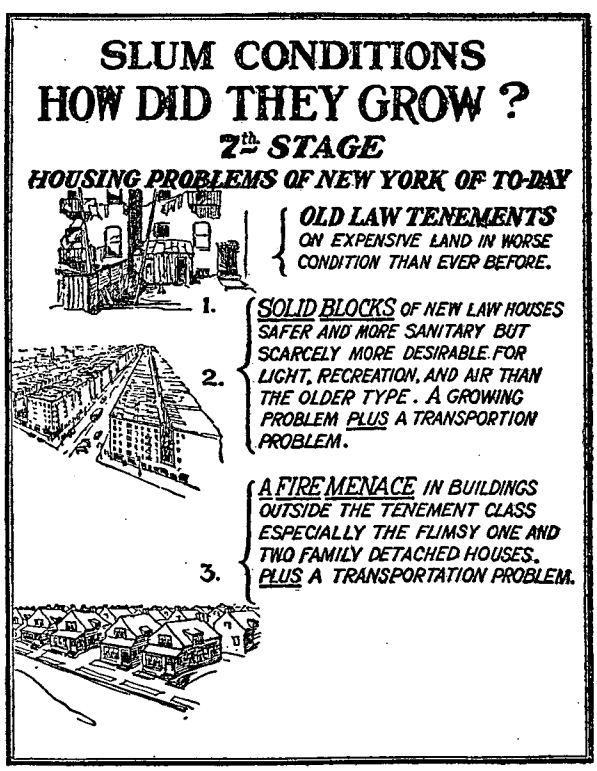
Making of a Slum

The League of Mothers' Clubs in New York City wanted simple, explicit material on housing. At their request, the author of this Primer and his collaborators attempted to put some of the material which they had gathered into the form of posters. The successful use of these posters as part of an exhibit on housing under the United Neighborhood Houses of New York City suggested their publication in the form of the pamphlet which Mr. Holden prepared at the request of the Workers' Education Bureau.

be put up on very cheap land. Just as soon as people began to buy this land, however, its price began to go up.

The pressure which has compelled greater height in high class buildings has taken advantage of light borrowed from neighbors' property. As higher land values force still more high buildings, the courts are made permanently dark and the desirability of the buildings is lessened. Popular demand forced legislation in 1926 which permits in New York City the power of condemnation to be used for assembling land for housing and getting rid of dilapidated buildings. The public is still too preoccupied; however, to realize that as cheap land is built up solidly with undesirable housing, new problems are created.

A housing problem and the modern city are virtually synonymous. The creation of Housing Boards and Commissions on Regional and Community Planning all represent an awakening on the part of both states and municipalities as to the question of housing. And yet these commissions cannot discharge the civic responsibility which rests upon the individual citizen to understand the whole question. While the character of the problem differs in various sections of the country it is probably not too much to say that housing does exist as a problem in every large urban center in America. Its solution will depend upon the general understanding that our citizenship has of its elements. This Primer doesn't pretend to solve the whole problem of housing but rather to show that there is no mystery about it.


SLUM CONDITIONS
HOW DID THEY GROW?
7th STAGE
HOUSING PROBLEMS OF NEW YORK OF TO-DAY
OLD LAW TENEMENTS
ON EXPENSIVE LAND IN WORSE CONDITION THAN EVER BEFORE.
1. SOLID BLOCKS OF NEW LAW HOUSES SAFER AND MORE SANITARY BUT SCARCELY MORE DESIRABLE FOR LIGHT, RECREATION, AND AIR THAN THE OLDER TYPE. A GROWING PROBLEM PLUS A TRANSPORTION PROBLEM.
2.
3. A FIRE MENACE IN BUILDINGS OUTSIDE THE TENEMENT CLASS ESPECIALLY THE FLIMSY ONE AND TWO FAMILY DETACHED HOUSES. PLUS A TRANSPORTATION PROBLEM.

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EDUCATION

Making the Most of Your Child's Intelligence

By JEANNETTE REGENSBURG

FROM every-day experience we recognize that physically humans differ enormously. We know by actual measurement the *average* height and weight for children of all school ages and for adult men and women, but we find that not *all* boys and girls eight years old weigh 48 pounds; their weights vary from 39 to 79 pounds. Such differences exist all through the physical field. Moreover, we make little fuss about these differences on the whole, accepting such variations as facts in real life to which we must adapt ourselves, unless they can in some way be modified by medicine, surgery or exercise.

In the same way we each possess our own personalities with feelings, attitudes and emotions peculiar to ourselves. Often we attempt to change personality traits in order to make more desirable members of society, but there are always certain characteristics which we cannot modify but to which we must adapt.

Since we have these limitations, what is the best way to deal with ourselves? The most workable attitude is always, "Is this person living up to his possibilities, using all the good qualities he possesses and using them to the maximum?" This sets a standard within ourselves, an ideal, but one we can hope to approach.

The third main angle from which we look at human life, the intellectual, deals chiefly, but not entirely, with ideas. Here, too, we encounter individual differences. In a school situation the biggest single factor is mental equipment, but even there we cannot omit consideration of the physical and emotional developments. It is a question of giving each field of growth its proper emphasis.

I am thinking of a boy of 15 who was in 8A, which means that somehow he had dropped behind about two years. At the time he first was referred to the Bureau of Children's Guidance, there were complaints from school that he was inattentive, slipshod, and careless. His father reported that the boy was impertinent to him, lazy and disobedient. The father owned a restaurant in which Edward "helped." The boy received no pay and often was tardy at school because he had to do errands for the store between 7 and 9 in the morning. Testing proved him average in general intelligence, with good reading ability and poor mechanical ability. The doctor's examination showed him to weigh 202 pounds; he was fat, heavy-footed and very slow. The boy's personal history brought out that his mother and father disagreed about his upbringing, that he had frequent fights with his father which upset him so he could not concentrate in school and that the mother, who was not in love with her husband, took the boy's part against the father. Furthermore, the father scolded Edward constantly for breaking dishes while the boy's physical condition made the job of waiting on table almost impossible. The school history showed that Edward had been to six different schools in various states and that when he came to New York he had been demoted one and one-half years. Consequently this huge boy of 15 was in the same class as average-sized 13-year-olds. What were we going to do about it?

We finally advised that the boy should leave school and go to work, *not* in the restaurant. That meant transferring the use of his good intelligence from school to a job, which would relieve him of the humiliation of being in the same class with younger boys; it would mean receiving pay for work done; his father's nagging would cease; Edward would be doing work he was fitted for; and it would make him more independent of his over-devoted mother.

"What's the idea?"
"Aw, me mother don't appreciate me and I'm trying to get sick or somethin'."

When our educational system first developed, we lacked much of our present knowledge. Educators of long experience had arrived at a rough estimate of what most children could do in a year's time studying the usual school subjects in the ordinary classroom. Therefore, for several hundred years teachers have done their valiant best to get everybody through the same program at the same speed with the same success.

It does not take parents very long to observe that three children have to be managed in three different ways. Similarly every teacher has experience with children who, in spite of an average general understanding, do not learn arithmetic, or reading, or

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spelling in the ordinary ways. In these cases which we call special disabilities, the problem is to find how that particular child can be taught. Nowadays we do not classify him as impossible to teach, but we face the fact that he is different and labor over the difficulty until we have found the right learning method for him as an individual.

There is only one practical method by which to deal with the situation in schools, and that is to place together the children who are most alike, that is, in need of the same kind of learning material and of the same learning method. That insures a maximum of success and a minimum of discouragement.

Since we first learned that children differ in their ability to conquer school subjects we have organized class-room groups in which the pupils are more or less equalized because in that way no one child needs much more attention than any other; the teacher makes a better job of it because she does not have to prepare many lessons of different grades for each day; the children are learning at their own rate—the slower ones do not continually experience failure and the quicker ones cannot feel bored with too little competition.

Every normal child, no matter what his ultimate goal, requires a solid foundation in the elementary school subjects, but what good does it do a backward child to sit with a group of quicker boys who need only two-thirds as much drill as he? He may leave the eighth grade with a vague idea of fractions, American history and South African geography, but what he is entitled to is clear, lasting knowledge that he can use in his work and in his play.

It is important for children to like school and appreciate the opportunity to attend because if they dislike it and yet are compelled to go, they begin to rebel against authority and become serious behavior problems. If one way to make school a pleasant experience is to place children where they can realize their own progress, what means have we to find out where they belong in the educational system if at some time they are not doing well? First of all the physical facts should be established: is the child ill, or undernourished, so that pain or weakness interferes with his attention to school work? Is his eyesight poor so that he cannot read the board work or his books with ease? Is his hearing impaired so that sounds are queer and indistinct?

Next should come the measurement of mental ability by tests because it is the surest single measure for determining class-room failure or success, and ties up with both physical and personality developments. Have we the right to expect this child to learn the work of the grade? If the tests show he has the ability to do the work, then of course there must be prompt inquiry into the personality reasons which might account for the school failure.

IN the personality field there are innumerable sources of difficulty. Is the child distracted from school work because he day-dreams? Why does he day-dream? Is he annoying his classmates? Why does he take this way of making himself conspicuous, preventing others and himself from learning? Is he truant—then why? Because he cannot do the work or because he dislikes his teacher or to spite the folks who make him go against his will?

All these conduct disorders mean that the child is trying to work out a personal problem and in his struggle he does things of which society cannot approve. Any child will be well-behaved and able to concentrate on his work if he is sent from home to school free from serious personal difficulties and if the school in its five hours a day contact with the child does not add to his burden. The responsibility lies primarily in the home; first, because the first four to six years of a child's life are entirely under home influences, and second, because he ordinarily spends nineteen hours at home to five hours at school.

THE mother of a school child may well ask herself, Does Billy know that I wish he weren't big enough to leave me all day? That will make him very reluctant to go and very willing to stay home and be babied. Do I coddle Jack at home so he can't fight his own battles, but spends his recess in tears and his whole school day in fear? Do I baby him so much that when he gets out of my sight he bursts into freedom by fighting, teasing and annoying other children? Does Ann understand that her home duties are a mark of respect for her ability and of confidence in her loyalty, or are they imposed on her as obligations? She will carry over the home attitude toward her responsibilities to the class-room. Do I wait on Bobby and protect him to such an extent that he expects the busy teacher to be an over-indulgent, over-solicitous parent, too? Am I depending on Mary and Michael to make up for my own disappointments in life? Do I put pressure on them to prepare for college because I wanted to go and couldn't? Do I, wishing Peter to escape some of my hardships, push him into commercial high school when he wants to be an electrician and would make a good one? Do I get so upset over a poor report card that Jimmy would rather falsify it than be square about his failures?

Consider the case of a boy who, well able to do the work and physically healthy, was failing all his subjects in school and was not seriously concerned about it. Harry was twelve years old, the youngest of a family of four, whose father had died less than a year after Harry's birth. He and his brother, eight years older than he, remained home with the mother, but the two older sisters lived with their grandparents in a foreign country until a few years ago. Harry's mother was partial to her youngest; the older boy married contrary to her wishes and the sisters were away so long that the mother was able to concentrate all her attentions and love on her baby. When the sisters finally returned to their home, they adopted the mother's habit of doing everything for the lad. Consequently when he, being a bright boy, was advanced into junior high school at an early age, he found it impossible to meet the more grown-up standards there. For a year or so he found friends among the teachers, who made allowances when he left his lessons at home, or gave him his home assignments a second time when he lost them. But that took valuable time from other boys and moreover, such indulgence was not helping Harry to grow up. Finally his marks fell low enough and matters became serious enough for expert help to be called in. There were two main things to be done in order to put the boy on his feet: first, teach Harry to assume his own duties rather than impose on people's indulgence, and second, teach his mother to enjoy the fact that he is able to become a responsible, independent person because up to this time she had been obtaining most of her pleasure from the very fact that he was being kept her baby. In other words, with all the good will and love in the world, she was actually making her son a failure in school and preparing him for failure in adult life.

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A little girl of average general ability was greatly discouraged by repeated school failure. Julia had particular difficulty with arithmetic but did almost as poorly in reading and spelling. Attempts to bring up her marks by tutoring were useless. Her good mental capacity could not work successfully owing to the situation at home. Her mother was an eager, intelligent person who was greatly disappointed because she had had to give up her schooling at an early age. She wanted to give her child the advantages she herself had been deprived of, not for the child's sake but in order that Julia might fulfill her mother's ambitions. To this end the mother urged Julia to get the highest marks, nagged her about her school work and made scenes if things went wrong. Julia became so confused that she could not concentrate and therefore built up a wall of defense against her mother's insistence. A vicious circle was created; Julia, after six months' illness, failed in the third grade. Her mother, as a result of her disappointments in her own school life, alternately scolded and teased Julia about her failure, stirred up a great feeling of inferiority in the child and with it resentment against her mother. The result was, the more inferior Julia felt the less she could accomplish and the less she accomplished the more her mother nagged and stormed. The conditions kept piling up until some one had to step in and show the mother that she could not work out her own disappointments through some one else, and show Julia that her success depended on her belief in her own ability and that her response to her mother's anxiety was just like the sulkiness of a very young child.

From these two examples perhaps we can venture a conclusion, a sort of general-orders-of-the-day for parents: provide yourself with all the knowledge about your child's intelligence that present-day science affords; learn where he belongs in the school world, the progress you can expect him to make; if possible get some idea of the kind of work that will be best suited for him afterwards; by all means find out his interests and ambitions so he can steer them into proper channels, regardless of your problems; then let him go ahead with a feeling of responsibility for his own success and the knowledge that you have confidence in his ability to follow his course. In that way only can you make the most of your child's intelligence.

High School Nurseries

By LAURA B. EVERETT

DAY NURSERIES in which high school students may safely leave younger brothers and sisters instead of staying at home to take care of them and which, at the same time, serve as project cores and home economics laboratories, have been proving their usefulness as part of the public school system of Oakland, California, for some years. The nurseries were first developed as a partnership undertaking between the Board of Education and the senior high schools during the war in sections where the mothers were being drawn into industry, making it necessary for high school girls to stay at home to take care of children under school age.

Mrs. Sue L. Fratis, director of patriotic and civic activities in the Oakland public schools soon discovered that the day nurseries served far more than this utilitarian purpose of increasing school attendance. The algebra class might feel itself aggrieved when invited to remain after school for special help with the complexities of factoring, but the art class, finishing decorations for the day nursery's Christmas tree, worked eagerly until put out by the custodian who insisted on locking up for the night. The day nurseries offered a chance for motivated work.

"Why must I write these exercises? Just so I'll be a better educated man when I am old? Huh, these few exercises wouldn't count. I could skip ten—or twenty." So youth is apt to reason. Those of us who have kept memories of adolescent days recall our irritation at the seeming uselessness of doing things "for practice." A child feels the artificiality of such demands upon him. He resents arbitrary directions. He wants to do something that really counts. Upper class high school girls have reached an age at which their grandmothers were in homes of their own. Boys and girls alike need a motive for their effort, many and varied motives that will carry them over the hard places till a developing sense of values brings self-direction. Many educators still fail to realize the new spirit that quickens school work when it is actuated by real needs.

Most of the school nurseries are housed in cottages or bungalows located on the school property. In the case of one high school and its day nursery, the Board of Education was to pay for furnishing the cottage, while the school was to raise money to move the new building to the selected site. But furnishing a cottage offers so many interesting things to do, compared with mere money raising, that by general consent an exchange of responsibilities was made: the Board provided for moving the cottage and the high school devoted the proceeds of its campaign for funds to furnishing the cottage. The home economics classes made curtains and crib-covers. They hemmed towels and washcloths and made bibs. The shop classes built a porch playroom. The art classes decorated the walls with nursery panels and borders. Cooking, nutrition, food chemistry and hygiene classes discussed food values for midday lunches and went regularly to weigh the children. Girls who had had little interest in high school entered into this project with enthusiasm. A maternal impulse made the work attractive to some, the satisfaction of doing something immediately useful appealed to others. Few children resent a "duty" or a "program," even when a good deal of drudgery is a part of it, if its necessity appears to them important and immediate.

One of the high schools reports, "The classes in dressmaking made over garments for the small children. Some years we have made as many as seventy-five garments for the cottages. The classes have made towels, washcloths, diapers and seven dozen handkerchiefs."

Day nurseries are something like playhouses—the most fun is in getting them started. Once under way they are placed in the care of the social service clubs and the hundred or more club members carry them on. Each nursery remains an integral part of the school with which it is connected, coming under the direct supervision of the principal and the home teacher. The girls who act as story-tellers in the afternoon receive instruction and assignments from the librarian of the children's room of the city library. Mrs. Fratis reports:

> For the home-making girls of the Smith Hughes classes, the nurseries are full of opportunity. The mid-morning lunch, the noon meal, the laundering of the linens, the bathing of the children, all offer problems full of interest. The artificial, make-believe situation, so common in teaching such classes, gives way to one of reality.

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Why are Teachers Outsiders?

THE relation of the teacher to the public is not generally satisfactory. The public does not know the teacher as an individual nor does the teacher feel himself a part of the neighborhood life. The teacher frequently seems to prefer to hold aloof from participation in social activity. The public often considers the teacher socially ineffective and, ignoring him, goes ahead with its organized efforts, disregarding the school group. In explanation of this attitude, it is easy to point out innumerable instances of lost motion, friction and conspicuous waste resulting from attempts to bring teachers into the general life of the community. Let us examine the validity of the public's position in this matter.

The profession of teaching is often ineffective in the social organization because the state has not been willing to demand of teachers the training it demands of physicians and lawyers. Recent surveys conducted by the Carnegie Foundation, the General Education Board and other agencies have revealed that teacher-training is behind other professional training in numbers, outlay and time spent. Training means social efficiency. Being incompetent, on the other hand, leaves the individual at the mercy of the unsocial forces of life, such as misunderstanding, non-sympathy and loneliness.

Too often teachers have little contact outside the professional group. They go together to teachers' institutes and educational association meetings. They go shopping together. They often join tourist groups made up entirely of teachers. A friend connected with the University of Pittsburgh conducts exclusive parties of teachers on a tour of the national parks. In colleges, they live in a restricted area near the campus. On assuming office in a small college, the president was criticized by his faculty and the college constituency because he refused to live among the college group and gave up the president's home to live among the townspeople in the main residential district. This instance is a rare exception to the general rule.

Almost all teachers are underpaid, especially elementary teachers and instructors in small colleges. Outside a limited number of professional organizations, which in a sense defeat their own purpose by intensifying clannishness, teachers cannot afford to join groups that would enrich their social contacts. Dues eat into a small salary. Travel with groups whose income is greater is always humiliating and usually impossible. The average teacher cannot afford to join the country club and play golf or tennis which would promote health and bodily vigor as well as sociability.

A vicious caste system within and without the school adds to the social ineffectiveness of the school. The high-school teachers have gatherings which do not include the elementary teachers and the rural teacher is without the pale of both groups. Outside of the school, the average citizen has broad social contacts. We know of one group in a Pennsylvania town composed of a railroad official, a corporation lawyer, two or three business men, a writer, an editor, a superintendent of motive power, a surgeon, and a general practitioner. But the superintendent of schools is not a member of this representative group, neither is the college president or any member of his faculty, although this town of twelve thousand advertises itself aggressively as the home of a thriving college—"Just the place to educate your children." A man who is familiar with normal schools informs us that it is a real problem to get members of the normal school faculty to associate with the teachers in the training school.

Far too often the teacher is a time-server, tiding over a few lean years until she marries. She is not interested in "putting over" her profession to the general public. She has no spirit of adventure in her work. She does not seek stimulating social contacts.

It is often true that the idle women of the community as well as the genuine leaders, either from ignorance—they do not know the school group—or from selfishness, thoughtlessness or acute snobbishness, ignore the teacher as a civic and social force. The civic league, the commercial club, the business women's clubs meet at hours when the teacher is in the office, school room or laboratory. In this way latent social usefulness goes undiscovered and consequently is wasted in negations or a more harmful manner.

In addition to the limitations imposed by inadequate salaries, the schools, as now organized, place such a burden upon the average teacher, that he or she has no energy for social activity and consequent social usefulness. Long hours in the classroom, the correction of innumerable papers, committee meetings and institutes, exact a terrific toll of extra-school effectiveness. The case comes to mind of a principal of a ward school who spends long hours at her building, cares for a home, cooks her meals, does her mending and dressmaking on Saturday, goes to church twice on Sunday and for gospel measure teaches a Sabbath school class, attends Columbia University each summer and helps a nephew and a niece in college. Surely Thomas Hardy's ironic Captain of the Immortells from his Olympian security and solitude above our sublunary turmoil and trouble would not even ask more of one frail spinster schoolmarm.

In many towns the social alignments are strongly, tenaciously made before the

In the School of Education of a certain vast university there has been this winter a class in educational sociology taught by a settlement-house worker. The teacher's aim was to make the members of the class think about themselves and their schools as forces in the community. The class divided itself into committees, which met outside class hours to study and discuss some aspect of the school's relation to the social organization and finally to draw up a report expressing its viewpoint, its line of investigation and its findings. One of these committees chose to consider Why the Teaching Group Is Ineffectual in the Social Organization. Obviously failing to realize the school as part of a coherent pattern, the expression of what these teachers saw when they tried to look at themselves in relation to the world outside the schoolroom is as interesting for what it does not say as for its fragmentary and very suggestive findings.

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teacher arrives. Whether or not it be the teacher's fault, to the end of his service he remains an outsider. The community looks upon him as here today and gone tomorrow. Should he buy a house and settle down for more than the average period he is looked upon as an anomaly. The residents wait patiently until he accepts a new position for they know they can buy his property at a sacrifice.

Another serious cause of social inadequacy lies in the fact that the teacher spends so much time with merely factual information which bears no vital relation to the activities of the community. Socialized studies and the socialized school are rarely found, and then only in advanced communities and large cities. In short, the school as an institution is an enemy of the community as it is an enemy of the child. Its goal is too often rote learning, not intelligent reaction to environment.

Teachers often come out of an inadequate social background, and are not of the highest intelligence. This is brought out by the Pennsylvania survey, the Indiana survey conducted by the General Education Board, and the comprehensive survey of teacher-training conducted by the Carnegie Foundation. The gravity of this situation is recognized by teacher-training institutions which have been forced to set up special machinery to secure teachers from the upper one-third of the output of the high schools. They found in Philadelphia and St. Louis, for instance, that unless special incentives were used the prospective teacher would come from the lower one-third of the graduates of the public high schools of those cities. This situation needs little comment. Social progress depends upon educational leaders of real ability.

If schools, colleges and universities are ever to function more effectively as the community unites, a greater degree of what Mary Follett calls interpenetration must take place between the teaching group and the public. The community should strive to know the teacher. He is eminently human. A dinner invitation will make mutual acquaintance and appreciation possible. An earned increase in salary and membership on some civic committee will also help break down social barriers and lead to a truer recognition of the teacher's place in the world outside his schoolroom. On the other hand, the teacher must be sure that he is alert to possibilities for broader contacts and free from the social sin of clannishness. These are simple and obvious suggestions, perhaps, but they are definite ways through which the interpretation of the teacher to the public and of the community to the teacher may be hastened.

Students Discover Education

By DOUGLASS ORR

TO the present college generation, or to speak more guardedly, to those among us who are interested in ideas, the process of education has become more interesting than the "extra-curricular activities" that are generally supposed to be our chief concern. A review of what the curriculum discussion group at the Ann Arbor congress of the National Student Federation said and did may enable one to gauge the temper of student thinking about education.

Of the delegates from nearly three hundred colleges and universities, about fifty came to discuss courses of study. "What should the curriculum aim at?" was the first question. Said one, "The college should enable the student to formulate a philosophy of life." "It should insure the full development of the individual," asserted the delegate from the University of Minnesota. Another stated that the cultural and the vocational should go hand in hand; but the gentleman from Columbia answered that liberal education has a distinct place apart from professional or pre-professional training.

What of liberal education then? "It must prepare one to meet problems of life," stated the representative of the University of South Dakota, while another suggested that it should help students adjust themselves to the world as it is. Dartmouth's representative preferred to state it differently: ". . . the purpose of the college should be distinctly cultural and intellectual. The college should in some way give the student a sufficient appreciation of the intellectual so that when he is in a vocational world he will not have lost sight of the intellectual." Prof. Alexander Meiklejohn of Wisconsin had said the evening before that liberal education is "the process of so informing and training and inciting the mind that it will go forward steadily on the road to understanding the life to which it belongs . . ." This was a good compromise and served as the touchstone for testing the various ideas as they arose.

But how to move toward this goal? One answer was that students' intellectual interests must be aroused early—when they are freshmen if possible. Columbia's delegate was asked about the method used there. All freshmen take a course called Contemporary Civilization, he replied; a course that brings them into intellectual contact with nearly all aspects of modern life, social, intellectual, religious, industrial. While the course succeeds in making freshmen aware of their environment and its problems, it could be improved, he thought, if not one man but several, representing the various fields of knowledge touched upon, delivered the lectures. Other colleges were found to have courses in Evolution or History of Civilization; it was agreed that such courses are valuable in stimulating intellectual interests and that some sort of orientation course is needed by first-year students.

The elective system versus required subjects came in for some discussion. Students do not want to be overly hampered with requirements, yet they see in the elective system a root of more than one evil—unconnected plans of study, dissipation of energies, lack of unity in the curriculum, meaningless diplomas. Honors courses were recommended by delegates from Smith and Swarthmore as one means of enhancing students' interests.

They give to the student of a particular bent and ability for independent study the opportunity for faster and more extensive work. Honors students are freed from classes, lectures, grades, and credits. They meet in small groups with professors who play the role of tutors. Reading in a few related subjects, honors students cover much more ground; this in compensa-

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tion for their liberty. They meet their tutors once a week to read papers and to discuss the subjects they are reading. As students are admitted because they are interested and to fields in which they are interested, honors work is one means of fully developing individuals who are suited for it.

Gigantism, or mass production transferred to education, was a problem of many state university representatives. Thousands of students of varying capabilities have to be taken care of. Sectioning of classes on the basis of ability was one method suggested. Honors courses may be used to put the more earnest students on their own responsibility. Suggestions for furthering faculty-student contacts that interested the group were those of the Harvard Student Council committee to divide the college into small units, each more or less autonomous, and that of Pomona College (Claremont Colleges) where a federation of small colleges will share common libraries and laboratories.

"I want to hear about comprehensive examinations," said the delegate from Wesleyan. "We tried them; they appeared too easy at first, but they fooled a lot of students who loafed on the job." "Harvard uses comprehensive examinations to test the work of the major field only," the group was told. "Examinations are set by teachers in the department of the major." At Bowdoin a similar scheme is used; "It is necessary to pass comprehensives to earn a degree," said the delegate. Someone questioned the value of examinations; the gentleman from Haverford disliked the whole system, but he believed that comprehensives may have value in tying together one's work in his major field. Likewise, Smith's representative found it valuable to review for examinations in that it summarized her courses. "I disagree radically," protested Howard's representative. "One studies, and then forgets, from week to week, or month to month, as examinations are given." "Examinations are not a fair test of anything," asserted a student from North Dakota. The sentiment of the group was against him, however, for it was agreed that examinations are of value, but that they should be of the comprehensive type.

Faculty-student cooperation in dealing with problems of the curriculum was a new idea to many of the delegates. The Vassar Curriculum Committee, a permanent body organized to permit students to participate in determining curriculum policies, and the practice of Dr. Little of having representative students come to an occasional tea for a frank and informal discussion of undergraduate affairs at Michigan, were described. Most of the delegates favored student participation of this sort. "President Hopkins has respected undergraduate opinions," stated the Dartmouth delegate. "Provisions of the Dartmouth report have been embodied in our curriculum. . . . Student thought has value in the educational policy of the college. . . . Unless college administrations have a sufficient sympathetic appreciation of undergraduate inquisitiveness, the college cannot progress as rapidly as it should." The Wesleyan representative was of the same opinion; he saw radical changes for Wesleyan as the result of student investigation there. One member of the group suggested that his dean held the opinion that students do not know enough to meddle with such matters; all but one of the delegates were of the opposite view.

CAMPANILE AT MILLS COLLEGE, CALIFORNIA, FROM A BLOCK PRINT BY WILLIAM S. RICE

For a convention, limited in time as conventions are, it was a very fruitful discussion. If nothing new was evolved, at least the delegates gleaned new ideas and accurate information about other colleges. The curriculum group, however, did not stop at its Ann Arbor meeting. It authorized the appointment of a commission to spend the year between congresses "looking into the question of possible fields for investigation by student [National Student Federation] committees." This commission proposes not only to turn up problems for study by student committees but also to digest what material has already appeared on the college curriculum and to make such material available to student groups in the colleges interested in discussing and studying such problems. It hopes thus to encourage student interest in education and to help prepare them for the day, not far distant perhaps, when students will assume increasing responsibility in guiding educational policies and making colleges more and more student-centered; for this is the goal of undergraduates who interest themselves in education.

FOLLOWING the announcement of the new policy adopted by the Department of Rural Education of the National Education Association at the Indianapolis meeting, textbooks and courses of study on cooperative agriculture are being prepared for the use of public school pupils. Cooperative marketing will, as far as possible, be taught to both city and country children "that all may have an intelligent and sympathetic understanding of the mode of agricultural life which promises to be the permanent type of the future." In announcing its new policy, the department pointed out that "farmers cannot get the money to support good schools except as they get it out of their crops. They cannot get it out of their crops until they cease dumping them individually at a loss and begin to market them collectively at a profit. They cannot do this successfully until they understand the basic principles of cooperative merchandising, the form which the marketing organizations have taken, and the absolute necessity for loyalty to the marketing group."

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SOCIAL PRACTICE

Tracing Trouble Patterns

By STUART A. QUEEN

SOCIAL workers should make several different sorts of contributions to their communities. One is direct service to their clients. Another is the betterment of the communal conditions which surround their clients. But perhaps more fundamental than either of these is a persistent search for the sources of social distance, in order that techniques may be constantly improved and larger results achieved.

People are likely to declare that the causes of undesirable conditions are other conditions of which likewise they disapprove. I once heard a juvenile court judge declare that the movies were entirely to blame for juvenile delinquency. Very plainly he personally had no use for the movies; but he had absolutely no data with which to support his statement. In that respect he was exactly like most of the rest of us.

But some people who are a bit more careful in their thinking, assemble facts of various sorts concerning the situation about which they are troubled. Thus they discover that John Doe, who has deserted his family, is alcoholic, had a "queer" father, and a mother who used morphine; that when he was a small boy he had a serious fall; that he never learned to read; that his I. Q. is 73. They find out that his wife is a poor cook and not a neat housekeeper or dresser. They add other similar items and then say, "These are the causes of John Doe's desertion." But by what right do they say so? How do they know that the presence of any of these factors gives it a causal relationship to the particular act called desertion? How do they know but that in some other situation with an almost identical combination of factors, desertion did not occur? How do they know that they have all of the significant items?

Let us go back a bit. We all know persons who are looking for single causes of particular difficulties. They do not stop with a few cases but actually enumerate a considerable number and perhaps work out some percentages. But they very commonly fail to show how frequently the "cause" they are interested in appears among people who do not suffer from the difficulty in question. Thus it is not hard to find good-sized percentages of criminals who have I. Q.'s below 70, or short stature, or prominent jaws or red hair or brown eyes. But it is quite conceivable that similar or larger percentages of the non-criminal population would be found with the same characteristics.

SUPPOSE that a more careful analysis is made and that it is found that certain characteristics are found more frequently among criminals, or unemployed men or unfaithful wives or any other set of folks, than among persons who are not involved in these difficulties. Have we thereby established the causes of their misconduct or misfortune? In other words, having determined that certain combinations of events or circumstances regularly recur in sequence or simultaneously, have we determined causation? I think not. Rather would I say that we have secured some very important clues on the basis of which to conduct our further search.

To put it a little differently, the statistical technique is an important device for indicating the sort of things which may be causally significant. But before they have been shown to be causes, in the usual sense of the word, they must be shown to play definite roles in a *process* which includes the act or acts on which attention is centered—such as stealing, hunting for work without success, abandoning a child, rearing a larger family than one can finance. More abstractly put, causation must be considered not as static (as is the case if we use statistics alone), but as dynamic. Hence we must combine with the statistical method the case-work method.

BUT the case-work technique for which this calls is something going far beyond the usual assembling of miscellaneous facts (and they are not always even facts) about heredity (so-called), physical development and health; physical environment such as housing, work-place, and so on; mental development, including formal schooling, acquisition of skill, and so on; and group experiences in family, school, playground, gang, club, lodge, union, or church. From what is discovered the social worker must *reconstruct imaginatively* the process in which the stealing, the job-hunting, or what-not occurred. This is quite analogous to what the archaeologist or ethnologist does in his field. Given a collection of bones or implements in a certain setting, he undertakes to re-create the total situation in which they originally existed; more exactly, the activities in which they took part. So the social worker must put together and supplement what he finds until he has a mental picture of what went on.

So far, however, he has presumably worked out the process for one single case. In order to determine causation in any more general sense he must identify recurring processes, or *types of processes*. In order to do this he must learn to deal with larger and more complex units. Just as the cultural anthropologist or ethnologist deals not only with individual traits of culture but with trait-complexes and culture-complexes, so must the social worker learn to identify and handle what we may perhaps call "trouble-patterns"; i. e., combinations of events which recur with some regularity and which regularly involve trouble.

But it is not enough merely to identify combinations of factors and events. They must be shown to play definite roles in the modifying of social relationships. That is, the mere enumeration of physical, mental, economic and other

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facts, even while present in typical combinations and sequences, does not constitute a statement of *social* causation. These become suddenly significant when they facilitate or interfere with interaction; when they become the objects of attitudes towards self or others.

This raises another question. How far back must the process be traced in order that the analysis of causation may be complete? We assume that everything that enters into the make-up of a person has something to do with every single act or other experience that he has or does. But we realize that it is quite impossible to find out everything about anybody. How shall we get out of this apparent dilemma?

The only answer I know how to give is this. Keep going until factors are uncovered, through whose manipulation the situation can be controlled. In other words, the test of adequacy of causal interpretation is not theoretical, but practical. The factors which are causally significant are those through which control can be achieved.

Thus causation must be determined objectively, not on the basis of our feelings. Causation is multiple and complex. It must be stated in dynamic rather than static terms. Statistics help to limit the field within which search must be made. Case work must reveal the actual processes in which various factors are active. But it is not necessary to include everything nor to push the search back indefinitely; the criterion of adequacy of interpretation is the possibility of control.

For Unmarried Mothers in Europe

By MILDRED D. MUDGETT

IN Teutonic countries the protection of illegitimate children has been accepted as the responsibility of the state; in Latin countries the care of unmarried mothers and their babies is almost entirely under private auspices. Germany and Austria are alike in having both national and local administration of measures in their behalf. The National Ministry of Social Welfare in Austria, which frames the laws for the eight provinces, has three divisions: health, social insurance and industrial relations, and child welfare. Administration of the laws is local. Vienna, with a population of three millions, has thirteen district offices of the Jugendamt, which is the local child welfare bureau. In one of these which I visited there were eighteen workers, each with a case-load of from one hundred and fifty to two hundred cases, of which about half concerned illegitimate children. In Austria, where about a quarter of all births are illegitimate—and in some rural districts nearly a half—all child welfare work had its beginning in legislation on behalf of illegitimate children.

Austrian social work is unique in that instead of separating the duties of social work and nurse it combines them in the person of a worker known as the *Fürsorgerin*. Her activities include investigation of juvenile court cases, probation work, supervision of illegitimate children, advice as to employment and supervision of employed minors, control of day nurseries, inspection of institutions for children, relief, the conduct of health centers and the general work of a health visitor. Preparation for these varied duties consists of only two years' training, divided about equally between classes and field work. The actual hospital training covers from eight to twenty-nine weeks, supplemented by from three to sixteen weeks in such institutions as day nurseries, kindergartens and children's homes. On the social side of the job the field service covers from three to twelve weeks in the public child welfare bureaus.

As soon as a hospital notifies the child welfare office of the birth of an illegitimate child, the *Fürsorgerin* visits the mother to obtain the name of the putative father. His address is obtained from the central registration bureau, which has the names and addresses of the entire population, by a man worker, who writes to him. If he fails to come to the office or refuses to recognize the child, action is started in the juvenile court and continued in the district court. When paternity is established he must pay 15 per cent of his wages until the child is fourteen years old or through school. About one-fifth of the fathers contest the action or refuse to pay and the money has to be collected by the Jugendamt; failure to pay, when able, means a penal sentence of five years. If father and mother are in different places, her testimony may be forwarded to his local Jugendamt and she need not appear.

There is very little child abandonment and no serious problem of baby farms. Most of the births take place in hospitals; the cost is met by the benefit which every woman worker receives from the national maternity insurance scheme. When the mother is ready to leave the hospital she is told of the places where she can get help in caring for her child. She may go to a municipal home for four months while she is nursing it and when she goes to work the child will be boarded for her. Before being placed the child is sent to a receiving home where it has a thorough physical examination; for older children mental examination is included. If the mother prefers, she may place the child in a day nursery, of which there are many under private auspices as yet not supervised publicly.

Bulletin of the New York City Department of Health

At the age of two the child may enter an all-day kindergarten at fifty cents a week. Kindergartens are not universally satisfactory, but the department of education is making a careful study of the education of very small children which probably will bring about some radical changes. The results of this study are very important because the fifty apartment homes, which are being erected for workers by the municipality, providing accommodation for about twenty-five thousand families, are each to have a kindergarten.

In Germany there is more distinction between the work of nurses and social

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workers, and the latter have training more comparable to our own. Every illegitimate child has a guardian in the public department of child welfare. When the birth is reported to this office by the bureau of vital statistics the mother is interviewed but she is not compelled to give the name of the putative father. If she does, he is notified, and if he fails to reply he is brought into court. When paternity is established the child is permitted to take the father's name, but practically this is seldom done. The payment ordered by the court is not a percentage of the father's wage, but the amount which is needed to rear the child until he is sixteen according to the social status of the mother. A new bill contemplates raising the age limit to eighteen or even to twenty-one when the child is ill. The problem of baby farms in Germany is rather serious. At the present time black lists of unsatisfactory homes are kept and circulated in the different parts of the city. The German Red Cross maintains two homes for unmarried mothers and children under three years of age. The girls may enter at any time before confinement and work and stay until the baby is four months old. They are required to nurse him for only six weeks but they receive ten cents daily from the social insurance if they continue till the child reaches four months.

In illegitimacy cases in Czecho-Slovakia the child summons its putative father to court through its guardian and the unmarried mother is considered only a witness. In cases which involve more than one man the burden of proof is on the man whom she names. If paternity is established, the father must pay according to his social status, about one-eighth or one-ninth of his wage, unless he is well-to-do. He may have to pay for the higher education of the child or for support beyond the ordinary age limit if he is crippled. There are still some lump settlements but the tendency is against them.

IN Switzerland a public guardian is assigned to every illegitimate child during the first year of his life. The first duty of the guardian is to locate the father and secure support. If he is unsuccessful, at the end of the first year the mother may be appointed guardian if she has proper qualifications. Case work with the girl and her relatives is done by the maternity home as the public guardians are chiefly young lawyers without social training although a few graduates of the school for social work have gone into the department.

In Holland the city of Amsterdam has a very satisfactory combination of public and private effort for unmarried mothers and their children. A recent study of all cases for the past decade revealed that most of the children were still with their mothers. The Armenraad is an organization composed of representatives of all the social agencies in the city, supported out of public funds. One of its several committees deals with the unmarried mother and her child. Working jointly with this committee is another composed of representatives of ten agencies concerned with illegitimacy, such as maternity homes and children's institutions. The second committee handles the legal side of each problem. If paternity is established, the father pays until the child is sixteen whatever amount is fixed by the court, usually about two dollars a week. The child may take the father's name but this is not urged because, if the mother marries someone else, the child cannot take the name of the foster father if he has already taken that of his natural father. There is no legal adoption in Holland, so the foster father cannot really adopt the child.

There is a municipal home for children in Amsterdam which accepts unmarried mothers when they leave the hospital and keeps them from six to nine months while they are nursing their children. Housework positions are obtained for them and as soon as they are well established a boarding-home for the child is found near the mother's place of employment. The mother is required to pay half her wages for the child. When children have been placed in boarding homes through the placement department of the Armenraad, supervision may be given over to a volunteer after three months, if everything seems to be going well. But in order to qualify for this responsibility the volunteer must have given her services for three months' full time as a regular member of the staff. There are more than twenty such volunteers.

THE contrast in the attitude toward illegitimacy between Teutonic countries and Latin countries like Italy and France is striking. Although there is a law in France for securing support from the putative father and a special lawyer for handling such cases, nothing really is done, for even the social workers feel that the care of the child is chiefly the responsibility of the mother. They are sure that our legal measures would not prove adaptable to their conditions. The same view was expressed in Italy.

In France work with unmarried mothers is done by the social service departments of the hospitals in connection with maternity clinics. The distinction is not between married and unmarried but turns on whether the girl is "alone" or is still living with the father of the prospective child. If the girl is alone, provision for her is made in a private home or in one of the three municipal homes. Confinement takes place in the hospital. Then if she must work the mother is advised to place the child in what is known as a center. These centers are receiving-homes and milk stations combined, in small villages, from which the children are boarded in private families. The boarding mother calls daily for the milk and reports on the condition of the child. If necessary the nurse visits the home daily and if ill the child may be brought into the center until he is well. Assistance in paying for the child's board is given the mother from public poor relief at the rate of a dollar and a half a week for the first year, a dollar and a quarter for the second, a dollar for the third.

If the mother is still living with the man, the social service worker discovers the obstacle to their marriage and helps them to obtain free legal aid if a divorce is necessary. In any case they try to persuade the father to recognize the child at the police station as he may then be held for the support. Persuasion is not very successful except in the more stable unions based on affection.

England occupies a position half way between Latin and Teutonic attitudes. There is some legislation but the social workers realize that it is not enough and have been trying for several years to add to it. Meanwhile some very excellent work has been done under private auspices. The Day Servants' Hostels are homes where girls live with their children until the latter reach five years of age and go out by the day to regular service positions. Arrangements are made that the girl have enough free time in the afternoon

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to take her child to the park or that she come home early enough in the evening to bathe it and put it to bed. To do this the hostel has to be located in a residential district where the demand for service is constant and little time will be lost in going to and from work. There are fifteen girls in a hostel, of whom five, who are still nursing their babies, do the housework and care for all the children. These girls pay only eighteen cents a day for their children's board while those working outside pay twenty-five cents. When the child reaches the age of five it is easier to obtain a service place for the girl where the child can be with her, because he is away at school so much of the day.

Although an English law requires the father of an illegitimate child to support it, the practical difficulty in enforcement is lack of legal assistance for the girls in court. In 1918 a long bill modeled on the Norwegian law was presented to Parliament but it took until 1923 to get even two or three clauses of it enacted into law. Legitimization of the child by subsequent marriage of its parents has not been secured yet. The maximum amount of support has been raised only recently to twenty shillings a week. During the first year of the child's life the mother may receive a grant from the Ministry of Health, so it is possible to keep mother and child together during that period. After that, a private child-placing organization often assists with the child's board on condition that the mother continue with her own payments.

Social workers interested in the unmarried mother have been fearful of the work of the adoption societies because they have been too willing to relieve her of responsibility toward a child attractive enough to be a good subject for adoption. While they appreciate the need for an adoption law they feel anxious that it be drawn to protect the child.

Under the ambitious Italian child welfare law, which became effective in April, 1926, the National Society for Maternity and Child Welfare is created under the supervision of the Ministry of the Interior with a central board of twenty-seven members. Four are appointed by the Houses of Parliament, twenty-three by royal decree. The Duce is to have assistance from the ministers of finance, justice, education, national economy and the interior as well as from the National Social Insurance Bureau, the Pediatric Society, Obstetric Society, Eugenic Society and the Red Cross in choosing the board members, but when they are once appointed, for a four-year term, their powers are almost unlimited. They exercise control over all public and private institutions for maternity and child welfare and may obtain "the suspension or dissolution of the governing bodies of public institutions or the closing of public or private institutions." The plan may be viewed with some apprehension because the available supply of trained people to fill these positions is not by any means equal to the demand.

There is to be a provincial and communal organization. Besides supervising existing institutions, it may create schools of mothercraft, open dispensaries with special attention to prenatal care of syphilitic mothers and take steps for the revision of existing legislation concerned with "physical and moral improvement of children and young persons." The protection and assistance of destitute and expectant mothers, children under five years of age in indigent families, physically and mentally abnormal children, and all neglected or delinquent children under eighteen are stated to be the special responsibilities of the organization.

Besides the yearly grant of eight million lire from the government and some additional public funds, there is provision for private donations. One-fourth of the sojourn tax collected from tourists in each commune is to be devoted to the local work. Members of the provincial councils who fail to attend four consecutive meetings of the council will be forced to resign. Members of the communal committees, who are called patrons, are required to carry out the instructions received from the provincial council and upon failure to comply must resign. The private organizations are ordered to fill vacancies in their institutions with applicants sent by this organization. The wording of the law sounds autocratic and drastic in its proposals but there is a possibility that the existing district organization of a private agency may be utilized and thus conserve what has already been accomplished. There is very slight reference in the law to the problem of child labor, which is serious in Italy today. There will, however, be an attempt to cut down the use of alcoholic liquor and tobacco by children.

European child welfare work differs from ours in general in that more of it is supported by public funds than is the case here. America has much to learn from some of the solutions which these other countries have evolved, especially since the war. Some of their methods are startling to us, but we do things equally incomprehensible to them. One worker whom I met could not conceal her horror at the idea of feeding spinach to a six months' baby, while others were amazed at the use of safety pins in a child's clothing!

Suspecting a Widow

By CHAVIS KAYE

"SUSPECTING WIDOWS" is a new vocation, thought Miss Thompson, as she looked at her day's assignment and read, "Mrs. Jablon and three children." She smiled as she thought of the imitation widow of her first case and wondered whether every widow seeking aid through the Society must be treated as a hard-boiled schemer until all the heart-rending facts were proved. However, there seemed to be no doubt that Mr. Jablon was dead and that the three children were genuine. The puzzle, if any, must have a different twist.

The directions were plain: walk as far as the bridge, go into doorway just beyond the garage; Jablon flat is on the third-floor front, left.

It was a glorious morning, but the sunlight stopped at the sill of the door and the hallway receded into inky blackness. Miss Thompson groped her way back to the staircase she couldn't see, gripped a shaky banister and slowly ascended two long, steep flights to the third-floor front. As she knocked she vaguely thought that perhaps some people went down those uncertain, interminable stairs only to marry or to die. Mrs. Jablon's door opened and the sun seemed to flood everything.

No one could dream that there were three such neat little rooms in that dismal, ramshackle house. The oilcloth on

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the floor was spotless, its pattern scrubbed nearly into oblivion, and the paint had been washed almost to the wood. White curtains hung at the windows. The biggest bed had the place of honor in the largest room, and pillow shams and bed-spreads, snowy white, were edged with crocheted lace. A pleated ruffle, also lace-edged, covered the wall-shelf, on which sat an alarm clock with its own idea of time, flanked by a gold-rimmed mustache cup and a conch shell. A huge, gilt-framed crayon portrait of the departed Mr. Jablon hung between the windows, a paper rose nestling in a piece of black silk fastened by its own wire stem to the lower corner of the frame. Even the ubiquitous gas meter was covered with clean, white, crocheted lace.

Across two of the rooms were strung several wires, from which hung at various angles dozens of red roses, ready to be packed into the big paper cartons as soon as the paste had dried.

Mrs. Jablon was as neat as her flat, and the children were like little dolls and almost as quiet. They were busily arranging the rose petals around the wire stems.

"It's grand you come so soon," said Mrs. Jablon. "We couldn't stay by here much longer. For myself, it makes no matter, but the children, they can't starve," and she glanced affectionately at the little Jablons.

"Don't you cry, mama," said the youngest, "p'raps we get two dollars this week with the roses. Sollie said p'raps we could."

"The dears," continued Mrs. Jablon. "There's no money by flowers, and it worries me sick when the children goes by the contractors for the petals and goes again back with the roses. But what shall I do? I don't got what to pay the leaster. He should have my luck. My man is gone and I'm a sick woman. It's been bad luck ever since the truck ran into the pawnshop downstairs like a earthquake it should come. Can I get some money today?"

The simple, childlike way in which the question was asked touched Miss Thompson, and she felt like advancing money from her own purse to help the little family. But she must learn to regard this as business, and the entire contents of her pocket-book would make little impression.

"Not today, I fear," she heard herself replying. "You see my report has to go in first."

Then, as Mrs. Jablon seemed to turn a little pale, she said, "Surely your husband had a little insurance?"

"Insurance! I should have insurance?" Mrs. Jablon turned still paler.

"Lady, you don't know trouble. The insurance,—I got paper, checks, what wasn't no good to me, so then I went and got the money. I put it in my bag,—so,—the five bills, and I thought I'd go by the stores. At the station, the Grand Central, when I have to change,—two men,—I don't see their faces,—they don't know me,—one grabbed my arms so by the back and the other grabbed from my bag the bills—the five bills."

She paused and pulled up her sleeves. "There should be the marks on my arms he made,—see,—there and there." Faint black and blue spots on each arm told the tale.

"Isn't that awful!" exclaimed Miss Thompson. "Did they catch the men?"

"I hollered," said Mrs. Jablon, "but the train doors was closing, and they jumped on. Two policemen came along and I told them, but all I know is one man was short and got black clothes. The police said they'd go by the next train and find them, and I fainted. Two ladies were so good to me and they took me home, but they wouldn't say their names."

"Was that all you had?" asked Miss Thompson.

"Everything. Mrs. Bentov knew a society that might give me money, so I walked—it took me an hour, but it wasn't there when I got there. I was terrible disappointed, and I tried to come home, but I fainted. A policeman, a rabbi and a gentile said where did I live and they put me on a car. I told them no, I had no carfare. They showed me a quarter and it made me cry. Miss, it's awful when you've lost a good man, and got no money."

"Yes," said Miss Thompson, sympathetically.

"I told them what happened and why I should cry, and I hated to take it, but they gave me ten dollars. On Tuesday it was. I have now a little left, but Monday comes the rent," and she burst into tears. So did the children, and Miss Thompson wondered anxiously what to do.

"Don't cry, please don't cry," she said. "I'll see what I can do for you."

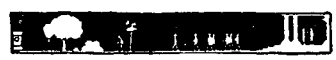
"Please, oh, please, help us," said the woman, between her sobs. "We've no place to go and no one to help us."

Suddenly shouts of "fire, fire," ran through the house. Doors opened and feet scurried. Miss Thompson grabbed the youngest child and made for the stairway.

Fire engines clanged into the street. The crowd of children separated as if by magic, yielding just room for the machines to pass, and then immediately closed in and resumed their interrupted play. Police sprang from nowhere and bustled the people out of the way. In the confusion Miss Thompson and the child lost the rest of the family.

After much water had been let loose and much hollering and scrambling had had its way, the engines departed. Assured by a kindly policeman that it was safe to venture within, Miss Thompson and the youngster went up the soaked stairs to the Jablon flat.

The sun still streamed in, but on a different scene. The air of extreme neatness had gone and a general upheaval seemed to have taken place. Chairs were turned over, flowers and rose petals were upset and scattered, and bedclothes were thrown helter skelter in the middle of the room. A bulky feather-bed topped a mass of pillows and blankets, and there, on this grotesque pile, shaking from head to foot and mumbling unintelligibly, sat Mrs. Jablon, vainly struggling with a corner of the feather bed into which she had sewed too securely the money the subway robbers never took.



WHILE the United States has a very much less extensive problem of illegitimacy than some of the European countries whose measures in that field Mrs. Mudgett describes on page 809, it is estimated in the study of Children of Illegitimate Birth by Emma O. Lundberg, recently published by the U. S. Children's Bureau (Bureau Publication No. 166) that very nearly 60,000 babies were born out of wedlock in this country in 1923, the year under examination. Local surveys have indicated that the infant death-rate among such children is two or three times as great as that of children of legitimate birth in the same cities. A considerable proportion of the mothers are girls in their teens, while what data is available indicates that a large majority of them are working in unskilled or semi-skilled occupations, with an undue proportion in factory work and domestic service.

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Miss Lundberg's monograph summarizes the legislative as well as the statistical data and suggests as preventive social measures: proper care and protection of the mentally subnormal; education in sex hygiene; safeguarding of recreation and the provision of wholesome activities into which the normal instincts of youth may be directed; development of school programs for dealing with problems of maladjustment and conduct; adequate provision for supervision in the community and for institutional care directed toward reeducation for delinquent young people of both sexes; and legal provision for holding both mothers and fathers to their responsibility toward their children born out of wedlock. Single copies of the publication may be had free on application to the Children's Bureau, as may also the other recent study by Miss Lundberg on Public Aid to Mothers with Dependent Children (Bureau Publication No. 162).

"THE POOR housing of social agencies," wrote Robert W. Kelso in The Survey for September 15, "is so well known as to require little either of proof or of illustration." New York intends to have its agencies well housed. The Welfare Council, still an infant in years, makes the manful suggestion that three million dollars be spent in a joint office building on a one-million-dollar site to take care of as many of them as possible. How the 1,500 agencies in the city will be disposed in the 300,000 feet of space which are tentatively planned remains to be seen. Simple arithmetic points to the need of rigorous selection of tenants, and as it is hoped to foster cooperation between the organizations which thus come under the same roof it is reasonable to expect that groups of agencies having a common interest will be invited to move in together. Two such ganglia already exist in the city; the family welfare societies, the State Charities Aid, and the New York School of Social Work in the United Charities Building at 105 East 22 Street; and the national health agencies at 370 Seventh Avenue.

WESTCHESTER County, New York, declares its proud Department of Public Welfare in an unusually attractive annual report, has a population greater than that of six of the states; within its borders lie four modern cities as well as towns untouched by any railroad and rural districts which cannot be reached by automobile during the winter months. The department, with an annual budget of more than $1,308,000, is divided in turn into five departments of Hospitals and Health, Child Welfare, Penitentiary, County Home, and the Steward's Department. In keeping with progressive principles of child-care, every effort is made to care for dependent children by the provision of mothers' pensions or, when it is impossible to maintain the child's own home, in boarding homes. Between 1915 and 1925 the number of children in boarding homes increased from 21 to 263, which latter number now represents 32 per cent of all children under care; while those in the illustrations which are still inevitable in many cases, fell from 999 to 798. Copies of the report may be obtained from George J. Werner, commissioner of public welfare, at East View, New York.

FROM that Mecca of enlightened penal practices, the state of Massachusetts, comes an account of the practice set in motion by the law of 1924 which requires the psychiatric examination by the state Department of Mental Diseases of convicted prisoners in a jail or house of correction serving a sentence of more than thirty days (except for non-payment of fine) and of all prisoners known to have served a previous sentence. While the offenses committed by these prisoners are not serious in the eyes of the law, the numbers of them (13,000 yearly in Massachusetts) and the high rate of recividism makes them an important social problem. Half the inmates of county institutions in that state are known to have served previous terms; fully 12 per cent have served six or more sentences, and each year finds several with a record of fifty or more. So far nearly 3,000 persons have been examined by the Division for Examination of Prisoners under the direction of Dr. Winfred Overholser. The examination includes a full social history compiled by the psychiatric social worker, which is forwarded to the psychiatrist together with the psychometric findings of the psychologist and the jail physician's report of the physical examination. Copies of all records are sent with recommendations to the Department of Correction and the Commission on Probation. In the offices of the latter they are coordinated with the card files in such a way that the complete history is available to any court when an enquiry is made about a particular prisoner, making possible more intelligent future decisions. In view of the pioneer nature of the work the department is unwilling to make public any of its general findings until at least 5,000 of these chronic delinquents have been studied and the findings analyzed as a sample of sufficient size to warrant statistical treatment.

ORGANIZATIONS interested in the protection of children in and around Cincinnati have recently federated to form the Juvenile Protective League so that they may work together effectively against the influences destructive to childish happiness and well-being and promote conditions which favor normal development. The group includes the Juvenile Court, the Ohio Humane Society, the Catholic, Protestant, and Jewish Big Sisters and Big Brothers, and the Newsboys' Protective Association.

FROM ox-cart to auto camps the Travelers Aid Society has stood by to befriend people on their way, but only recently have their services been extended to the air. During the past summer Mrs. A. B. Stewart of the Jacksonville Society was able to meet two crises by calling upon the airplanes. In one a husband was helped to overcome a domestic difficulty by thus overtaking his wife before she went home to mother. In the other case the employment of a professional aviator enabled a public official to reach a distant city just before a bank crashed, and thus to save the tax-payers' money and avoid hardship to the municipal employes of that town.

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"Yes, this is the Traveler's Aid Society. What can I do for you?"
"Come outside and pump up the flat tire on our flivver. Pa's rhumatics has got the best of him again."

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Books in Our Alcove

IMPRINT OF THE DUNSTER HOUSE BOOKSHOP, CAMBRIDGE, MASS.

Rising Tides in Industry

INDUSTRIAL SAFETY ORGANIZATION, *by Lewis A. DeBlois. McGraw-Hill. 328 pp. Price $4 postpaid of The Survey.*
BUSINESS AND THE CHURCH, *by Jerome Davis and others. Century. 383 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

MR. DEBLOIS reveals a rare mastery not only of the facts but of the technique of reducing industrial accidents. As director of the safety engineering division of the National Bureau of Casualty and Surety Underwriters, he has an immediate economic as well as long-range scientific interest in his subject. During the fourteen years of his participation in accident prevention for the DuPont Company, he demonstrated the high degree to which accidents are susceptible of control. In one division of that company he established a record when among more than 500 workers only a single time-losing accident occurred in a period of seven years.

No one who is stirred by the upwards of 85,000 accidental fatalities in the United States every year can afford not to study Mr. DeBlois's book. That this death-roll is not the concern of industrialists only is shown by the further fact that in 1923, a typical year, 22,600 of the 85,000 fatalities occurred on highways, 30,000 in homes, and 19,000 through drownings, firearms and the like, whereas only 23,000 occurred in mines and factories. Mr. DeBlois deals specifically with these 23,000 industrial fatalities and the two and one-half million non-fatal industrial injuries that played their accompaniment; but his vision looks beyond industrial accidents to the whole problem of safeguarding human life amid the whirl of machines, to whose menace no man, woman or child is any longer immune.

His appraisal of the accident situation shows by actual plant records what intelligent safety engineering can accomplish. He describes methods that have proved effective in eliminating human waste. It is the pervasiveness of this very modern philosophy of life as a high adventure which those who live it may shape and direct that illumines even the statistical sections of the book.

Precisely because of this modern-mindedness one is struck by Mr. DeBlois's imperfect success in defining the major concepts implicit in his argument. He feels that all parties to the industrial enterprise are partners in the productive process and occasionally he indicates that for him the standard by which managerial efficiency must be measured is the degree to which the productive process is unimpeded by such preventable interruptions as accidents. Yet he never quite grasps the fact that the focus of effective cooperation for all parties to the industrial enterprise is the productive process. Time and again he permits old ideas of the discrete and conflicting relationships of owners, managers and workers to befog his meaning. At page 259, he says that labor "is *the* element which controls and makes possible the functioning of the entire plant." This is as much an overstatement as when his preface says that the progress of the safety movement rests exclusively with the "industrial executives, the engineering fraternity, and that smaller and newer group, the safety engineers." Both statements are salutes to the traditional pride of separatist groups. What his mind is obviously feeling toward is not the static establishment but the dynamic process, not safe thought and action, but creative action. Even with these reservations, one need not hesitate to commend this book as the last word on its subject.

A CURIOUS result of the slow penetration of the scientific spirit into the contemporary mind is the discovery that there is no such thing as a *Zeit-Geist,* no such clear periodic demarcations in the evolution of the human mind as those which historians used to insist upon when they rigidly divided history into ancient, medieval and modern. As one looks out upon the contemporary mind, it reveals a

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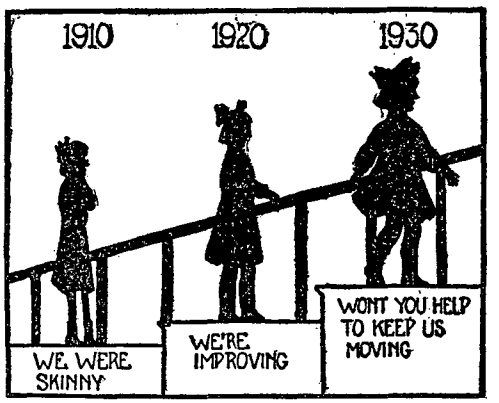
stratification of attitudes resembling the geologist's drawings of the layer upon layer enveloping the earth. This synchronous existence of attitudes toward human relationships belonging to many periods of history, from pre-Paleolithic to the ideal world that lies beyond tomorrow, is illustrated in Jerome Davis's symposium, Business and the Church. Here such men as John Calder, Henry Ford, Roger Babson, William Green, Whiting Williams, John D. Rockefeller, Jr., Sam Lewisohn, Arthur Nash, Earl Dean Howard, Edward A. Filene, William P. Hapgood, L. K. Comstock and Henry Dennison set forth their philosophies and tell the church how they would have the church view the life of industry.



THE LITTLE MAVERICK DISPENSARY, OF EAST BOSTON, FURNISHES THE AUTHOR OF CLINICS AN EXAMPLE OF A SUCCESSFUL COMBINATION OF APPEAL AND ANNUAL REPORT

Mr. Babson's mind apparently still moves in the nebular age of pre-scientific ideas where such questions as "Do praying fathers have preying sons?" seem important. Henry Ford appears as a glorified tribal leader who knows that the flow of all materials that go into an automobile must be synchronized in a finished product. So far as his chapter goes, he would seem to have no conception of the fundamental relationship of the various industrial groups to the total productive process. On the side of materials he is a modern of moderns, on the side of industrial relations, he sees with the eyes of a feudal overlord.

E. M. Herr of the Westinghouse Electric Company falters at the door of the Twentieth Century, and still sees the possibility of cooperation between management and men limited to the consideration of wages and hours. That no man can do his full work without in some degree sharing the responsibilities of management is a suggestion that seems to him dangerous.

It is when we come to L. K. Comstock who, in 1920, took over the lead in organizing the Council on Industrial Relations of the Electrical Construction Industry, and to Henry S. Dennison, of the Dennison Manufacturing Company, that we enter fully into the modern age. Both men base their statements not upon more or less irrelevant moralistic speculations, but upon an inductive analysis of what is actually happening in industry; discuss not what they think ought in the abstract to be the bases of industrial relationships, but what those bases actually are in specific cases where all parties are cooperating effectively. Their contributions to Mr. Davis's symposium are especially valuable.

ROBERT W. BRUÈRE

The Place of Healing

CLINICS, HOSPITALS AND HEALTH CENTERS, *by Michael M. Davis. Harper. 546 pp. Price $5 postpaid of The Survey.*

A BILLION dollar a year business with ten million patrons! Quite worth studying, is it not, as a matter of major finance, of mass production, for its publicity sake, quite as much as because it deals with the greatest national wealth which, unless well handled, will suffer even a greater wastage than by war? They say that the wealth of America in the form of human lives is at least five times the value of all our present accumulated material wealth. There are some of us who think that the vast increase in material prosperity, the present ease of circumstance and generous standard of living well nigh universal throughout our states, is due quite as much to release from the burdens of the high death-rate of our fathers and grandfathers as to our genius for industrial life and our incomparable good fortune in possessing great stores of saleable materials and power.

Michael Davis and his colleagues give us inside information upon the philosophy, history, mechanics, business, public and private sickness and health objectives and future possibilities of institutional services for the care of the sick and for the preventive medical supervision of the multitude.

Not far from ten million people are actually cared for in public medical offices in a year, that is, out-patients, dispensary patients, not private patients, and who shall say they were not as well cared for or better than if they had paid their fee at the physician's consulting room?

There is meat for trustees, spice for medical social workers, and thought for philanthropists in these well-marshalled facts of function and finance, the goods and bads of hospital and dispensary practice. The health officer must know the history and origin of this new instrument of public health, that symbol of today's self-organized community, the health center, a collection of facilities for sick and well, expectant mother and tuberculous grandparent, etcetera. The nurse, whether teacher, administrator or one of a field staff, will find herself at home in the discussion of management, routing of patients, follow-up, judging economic status, or educational work for out-patients. Physicians cannot be without this book. It is an overflowing cornucopia of good ideas, based on well attested facts, all modulated to a general social symphony of service. Deans of medical schools will have to keep the book on their desks to guide the specialist fanatics of their faculties in a common purpose in out-patient and health clinic and bed-patient practice. Social or non-medical agencies in our cities will see their part in the scheme of professional well-doing more clearly after reading the chapter that tells of the results of examination of welfare agency families, referred for general medical diagnosis. Hospital accountants too, as well as appraisers of the science of medical care will dip deep into this compendium of the business of catching and scotching sickness while it is still up and about.

We are not led about by the nose and told how to behave, what to buy, or build, whom to serve and whom to turn away, in short, what and when to think, but we are asked to observe, cogitate, criticise, and build upon a study of out-patient work made by those who have been busy in its best and latest management, financing, and administration. The authors have been the workers on the job. Nothing like this book has been produced in this field. No similar statement could have appeared until the five years spade work for the facts had been lived through in the midst of the trial and error of experiment.

HAVEN EMERSON, M.D.

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If the Foundations Crumble

FAMILY DISORGANIZATION, *by Ernest R. Mowrer. University of Chicago Press. 317 pp. Price $3 postpaid of The Survey.*

ERNEST R. MOWRER either underestimates the sufficiency of the information already available on the plight of the modern family or overestimates his own ability to fill the gap, for a reading of his book does not leave one with the impression that much has been learned. The goal that the author sets for those who would understand and control family disorganization is "the clinical treatment of family discord in much the same fashion that disease is treated by the medical fraternity." Now it may be very well to do what can be done for particular families that have veered from the path of ideal happiness, but if we are to expect no more encouraging results than the doctors often get by the treatment of sick individuals, the question is bound to be raised as to how much energy it is worth while to expend on the treatment of particular cases, especially as the prevalence of family disorganization is clearly traced back by the author to the transformation effected in society by the individualistic tendencies growing out of modern industrialism and urbanization.

Mr. Mowrer's chief distinctive contribution is his elaboration on the theme that family discord is largely to be expressed in terms of "failure of response." In the old family, husband and wife were held together by the supremacy of primary group standards, so that it was not so important that relations of positive congeniality should be set up as a family bond, whereas now that the individual family is turned adrift in the world with the minimum of bolstering from other social forces, the question of mutual response between husband and wife is crucial. The idea is, of course, commonplace, but the author's reiteration and development of it is impressive.

It is only fair to say that the book professes to be but "an introduction to a sociological analysis," and that it does give a rounded impression of the methodology necessary and of the respective limitations of general sociological analysis, of statistical method, and of case studies. The reader is led to envisage an all-round approach to the problem by the use of all these methods. The biggest gap is perhaps in the failure to go into the whole question of the disintegration of the modern social order and of what may conceivably be done in the way of general social reconstruction to put new foundations under the family and thus obviate to some degree the necessity of a purely piecemeal treatment of family disintegration. It would certainly be worth while, and not entirely premature, to look into the whole question of a possible reversal of the process of urbanization and over-industrialization, as well as of such a scientific control of the economic system as would make available adequate material resources for soundness of family life and adequate social expression of interests that now have to vent themselves destructively in family relations for lack of a sound exercise in the control of collective life.

The point is this: Unless the general structure and functioning of modern civilization can be brought under social control, there is no possibility that experts on the family will ever be able to patch up breaches in the institution as fast as more and graver breaches are created by the devastating tendencies of a pointless social order. So trivial are the possibilities of the patchwork method of treatment that only a person of extraordinary hardihood or of extraordinary obtuseness could find any comfort in developing a technique for the purpose. Besides that consideration, it is necessary to give far more attention than Mowrer is disposed to give to the whole question of whether the family is worth saving. On the whole, the clear and painstaking job that the author has done serves but to renew the reviewer's regret that since the War there is little evidence of a statesmanly attitude on the part of sociologists and that men of capacity suffer themselves to be confined to the odds and ends of social problems instead of essaying a masterly analysis looking to comprehensive social control.

ARTHUR W. CALHOUN

Brookwood Labor College

What Hope, the Company Union

POLITICAL AND INDUSTRIAL DEMOCRACY, 1776-1926, *by W. Jett Lauck. Funk and Wagnalls. 374 pp. Price $2 postpaid of The Survey.*

DESPITE its title, Mr. Lauck's book is an appraisal of the company-union movement in America since the war. To remove another suspicion, we may say that his thesis is not that the company unions have inaugurated a regime of industrial democracy. An early chapter presents certain criteria of industrial democracy. Those employe representation plans that the author evidently thinks of as most progressive are then described and the criteria applied, with the result that not one of them meets all of the tests, though several come very close. The book closes on a note of optimism with respect to the probable growth of industrial democracy for which one is hardly prepared.

The essentials to industrial democracy laid down are roughly: recognition of and bargaining with trade unions; the establishment of "democratic wage standards," that is, a wage that affords a living to the unskilled laborer and levels up from that; cooperation and participation in profits; employe stockownership and control; employe representation on boards of directors; customer and employe provision of new capital.

Considering the different representation plans in the light of these "essentials," Mr. Lauck finds that five of them "stand out as indicating a sincerity of purpose and as offering a basis for future constructive action." These are the plans of the Filene store of Boston, the Dutchess Bleachery of Wappinger's Falls, New York, the Dennison Manufacturing Company of Framingham, Massachusetts, the Nash Company of Cincinnati, and the Philadelphia Rapid Transit Company. Strangely missing is the Columbia Conserve Company, for Mr. Lauck refers to it elsewhere as "the most complete and perfect illustration of direct industrial democracy which exists today."

The most striking feature of this book is the author's faith that industrial democracy is imminent, although none of the plans examined met all of his tests and only a handful, covering not over 50,000 employes, even afforded "a basis for future constructive action." The author's most concrete statement of his faith appears in his discussion of the possibilities of stock ownership. "If wage earners received a share in productive gains of only 10 per cent of their wages annually and invested it collectively in common stock, they could within a decade acquire a controlling interest in our basic industries such as hard and soft coal mines, steam

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railroads, iron and steel mills and furnaces, and other branches of mining and manufacturing."

Whether by a "controlling interest" Mr. Lauck means 51 per cent is not clear. To acquire such control of manufacturing interests in the country on the basis of capitalization and wages reported in the 1920 census would require over twenty years if Mr. Lauck's plan were followed. But it is to be noted that this control can be secured only if employers agree to a profit-sharing dividend amounting to 10 per cent of the wage bill. If they were to do that—which seems highly improbable—and labor were to use the money to buy up control—which also seems improbable—it remains certain that the reaction on the stock market would be such that the amount of money needed to purchase control would become constantly greater. The very act of buying stock would, in other words, make ultimate purchase of control within any reasonable time extremely difficult, if not impossible.

The author's other argument for a rapid spread of democracy in industry is that such spread is inevitable.

Of course, no one is obliged to accept Mr. Lauck's conclusions, nor do these lessen the value of the fact material bearing upon the development of employe representation.

JOHN A. FITCH

New York School of Social Work

Tilting Against Sex Radicals

SEX FREEDOM AND SOCIAL CONTROL. *Charles W. Margold. University of Chicago Press.* 143 *pp. Price* $2 *postpaid of The Survey.*

IN these days when the biologists are in the saddle and riding hard to make us visualize all of humankind in terms of animal tendencies and behavior, it is refreshing to have a sociologist set lance for a tilt with them. Here is a challenge to "Mr. Havelock Ellis and others of his school" who make the claim that sexual relations, except as they result in offspring, are not properly subject to social control.

According to Dr. Margold, the radicals contend that the source of sex conduct in our modern society is more largely biological and physiological than sociological and psychological; and this, to him, is an entirely mistaken view. In his opinion the mental and spiritual attributes of man's sexual nature are paramount and must inevitably partake of the inherent social nature of man's mental life. He affirms "the extreme complexity of human life and the utter human inutility and impossibility of having each individual, through mere sense data, with his limited experience, directly work out his sex life from the biologically given."

In concise terms and careful logic the author builds up the thesis that radical practices cannot be justified by merely biologic data, that conduct is necessarily social and that social control is invariably present in man's sexual conduct, and that group standards are thoroughly intrenched although individuals may now and then break away from them. He cites an imposing array of examples from both primitive and cultured peoples. But one wonders how much there was among these of breaking away from social impositions regarding social relationships, how much young moderns of other days and other groups have been able to "get away with." And who knows but what radical spirits have, since 1858, sprung up among the staid reactionaries of the Kaffirs and that flaming youth is overturning the old mores and "jazzing it up" a bit?

The book is copiously and carefully annotated, with a full bibliography and a keenly analytic introduction by Prof. Edward T. Devine, and should be an excellent guide for further study of the subject discussed. Without question Professor Margold has written a scholarly and painstaking treatise which represents the views of a large majority of persons in the so-called civilized world and pricks the body of radical opinion in several vulnerable spots.

JEAN B. PINNEY

American Social Hygiene Association

Something Noble in Denmark

THE FOLK HIGH-SCHOOLS OF DENMARK AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF A FARMING COMMUNITY, *by Holger Begtrup, Hans Lund and Peter Manniche, with an introduction by Sir Michael Sadler. Oxford University Press.* 168 *pp. Price* $2 *postpaid of The Survey.*

MOST of the people who visit Denmark go to study the folk high schools and farm cooperative enterprises. They quickly discover a cooperative commonwealth which from bottom to top is informed by cooperation, economic, social and civic. They also discover that the folk high schools and farm cooperative enterprises are complementary aspects of the same movement and that together they have served to create a new type of civilization in which cooperation rises through three levels, namely, cooperation as a way of business, as a way of life, and as a way of civic service—a three-story commonwealth with a sky-light, to use Oliver Wendell Holmes's figure.

The books in English that treat one or another or all these phases of commonwealth life in Denmark are noted in a bibliography of the Royal Danish Library, the mere titles of which fill 210 pages. By long odds the four best pieces of print on the Danish folk high schools in order of time are Poulsen's monograph, Foght's ampler text, Joseph K. Hart's articles on the spiritual aspects of the folk high schools, in The Survey (now in book form, Light from the North, Holt), and this little volume which is far and away the best account we have in English of the Danish folk high school.

Begtrup's chapters center attention on the religious awakening by Bishop Grundtvig and the emphasis he put upon "the living word" instead of the "dogma religion" of the Lutheran Church. The folk school originated in religious fervor, which largely explains the fact that religion in Denmark is not a periodic frenzy but a placid work-a-day faith in the cooperative life. Lund tells the story of the Danish peasant and his rise out of poverty into wealth, and he traces cooperation directly back to folk high school influences. Peter Manniche exhibits a new type of folk high school in which he strives to bring the common problems of humanity in the world at large to the attention of his students. The summer conferences at his People's College just outside Elsinore had representatives from thirteen different countries in the fall of 1923. It was my pleasure to attend these conferences and they were a brand new thing under the sun of Europe.

His People's College is only five years old and he is struggling with debt. It is a mortal pity that some rich man or woman does not lift the blanket of debt off this enterprise, equip his school for the larger values that lie in economic freedom, and give it free course to run.

E. C. BRANSON

University of North Carolina

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RUN OF THE SHELVES
A DESCRIPTIVE LIST OF THE NEW BOOKS

Communities

BEYOND CITY LIMITS, *by the Rev. F. D. Goodwin. The National Council. 203 pp. Price 60 cents postpaid of The Survey.*

THIS book is an earnest endeavor to commend rural America to the Episcopal Church as a field for religious work. The Church, it is pointed out, "began in America as a country institution" but has become so urbanized that "in Iowa, the proportion is one Episcopalian to every 6,464 of the country population." "If it had been left to the Episcopal Church to Christianize rural America, it would be proportionately less Christian today than the Japanese Empire." The author counsels rural religion workers to "put themselves in close touch with their own State Agricultural College and the various forms of extension service. This first step can be supplemented later by contact with the U. S. Department of Agriculture and the farm interest departments of the various business organizations." Twenty organizations and groups of organizations are listed, such as railroads and chambers of commerce, "with which the church should be an intelligent partner in working at the rural problem." This approach arrives at the farm bureaus, as a like approach to urban workers would arrive at the company union. These goals are reputable and may be the best; but there remain wilder regions beyond, probably not to be reached from this side. Some teachers of religion, as St. Francis of Assisi, Bishop Grundtvig of Denmark, and Mahatma Gandhi, have attained such regions by the opposite approach; and such a teacher, if he should come, might still find his work in America after all is done that could hope for approval from authority.

C. F. ANSLEY

MILITARY TRAINING COMPULSORY IN SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES, *edited by Lamar T. Breman. H. W. Wilson Co. 161 pp. Price 90 cents postpaid of The Survey.*

THE briefs, references to articles and books, and reprints of timely material pro and con offered in this new volume of H. W. Wilson's Reference Shelf will help students to understand the background and divergent views on this urgent question of whether or not the schools and colleges are fit places for military training. We miss Winthrop D. Lane's report on the question among the reprints.

UNITED CHURCHES, *by Elizabeth R. Hooker. Doran. 306 pp. Price $2.75 postpaid of The Survey.*

COOPERATIVE DEMOCRACY, *by James Peter Warbasse (revised edition). Macmillan. 331 pp. Price $3 postpaid of The Survey.*

ELECTRICITY IN THE HOME, *by Belle Boone Beard. Workers Education Bureau. 173 pp. Price $1 postpaid of The Survey.*

NUMBER ONE of the Workers' Education Research Series is the result of an experiment in cooperative research into the problem of a "wider use of electrical power in housekeeping as a means of eliminating drudgery in the lives of women." Morris Llewellyn Cooke, former director of the Giant Power Survey of Pennsylvania, made the plan and writes the introduction. The eight hundred references to books and articles and the explanatory abstracts for each item were prepared by students of the Seminary in Social and Industrial Research of the Graduate Department of Social Economy at Bryn Mawr College under the direction of Susan M. Kingsbury. This is an extremely suggestive combination of the resources of the engineer, the workers, and the women of a university to throw light on the most practical problem of the use of giant power—what it can do in the home. This is, we take it, the bibliography of a larger study of the social and economic effects of the wider use of electricity in the home. It gives references on the extent of use and rates on electricity as a convenience and labor-saver, and its uses for cooking, heating, and refrigeration. Mr. Cooke attempts few conclusions, but suggests that electricity has barely begun to touch the lives of the laboring classes, and appears to have made the most progress in the middle classes where, through economic pressure, the employment of servants has been discontinued. Some evidences were found of a return to household industry through the bringing back of household processes, such as the laundry, into the home. The book is of great practical value and full of portents.

HUMAN RELATIONS. A COLLEGE TEXTBOOK IN CITIZENSHIP, *by Carl C. Taylor and B. F. Brown. Harper. 328 pp. Price $2.75 postpaid of The Survey.*

EVEN as an effort merely to "orient" the student to the social sciences this seems unnecessarily didactic, theoretical and old-fashioned. It needs contact with the hard new facts of 1926. A chapter on Human Relations in the Family ignores the wage-earning mother; one on Human Relations in Industry ignores the labor union. In support of the statement that "cities are now attacking their housing problem" the authors mention almost nothing but the work of the New York Tenement House Commission. Nor is the country treated much more adequately than the city: a total of seven lines is given to cooperatives, and that not in connection with the exposition of rural relationships.

READINGS IN CIVIC SOCIOLOGY, *by Edward Alsworth Ross and Mary Edna McCaul. World Book Co. 398 pp. Price $1.80 postpaid of The Survey.*

THIS collection of brief excerpts from current social and civic literature can hardly be judged apart from Professor Ross's textbook, which it is designed to accompany. It is manifestly fresh, however, and ranges neatly from a decent quota of statistics and other raw material to an occasional piece of finished social criticism like some of Mr. Ansley's contributions to The Survey, cited in connection with The Drift to the Cities.

A BRIEF HISTORY OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION, *by Emmett A. Rile. A. S. Barnes & Co. 276 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

TEMPERAMENT AND RACE, *by S. D. Porteus and Marjorie E Babcock. Richard C. Badger. 364 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

U. S., A SECOND STUDY IN DEMOCRACY, *by H. E. Buchholz Warwick & York. 400 pp.*

THE AGRICULTURAL PROBLEM IN THE UNITED STATES *National Industrial Conference Board, Inc. 156 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

ACOMA, THE SKY CITY, *A Study in Pueblo-Indian History and Civilization, by Mrs. William T. Sedgwick. Harvard Univ. Press. 314 pp. Price $4.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

Health

READINGS IN ABNORMAL PSYCHOLOGY AND MENTAL HYGIENE. *W. S. Taylor, Professor of Psychology in Smith College, introduction by Joseph Jastrow. Appleton. 789 pp. Price $4 postpaid of The Survey.*

TAYLOR'S Readings consists of an irregular selection of long and short quotations from the works of a multitude of writers through which the author desires to present the stimulus-response point of view as applied to abnormal psychology. While the readings have been chosen on the assumption that they can be grasped by readers possessing a knowledge of elementary psychology, such a limited educational preparation is entirely insufficient. The social worker will find little advantage in plowing through this book of readings, over-stuffed with foot-notes. Many of the especially interesting problems which are referred to and constitute a large part of the material discussed have only a limited application in practical social affairs. The chapter on Mental Hygiene is lamentably weak and inadequate. In the light of present day tendencies it is striking to find a 750-page book of readings that purposely bars mat-

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ters of controversial interest. Hence one is prepared to note more attention to Janet than to Freud, more to Wells than to Jung, more to Woodworth than to Alder and more to Sully than to John Watson.

IRA S. WILE, M.D.

MEDICAL CARE OF INDUSTRIAL WORKERS, *National Industrial Conference Board, Inc.* 112 *pp. Price* $2.00 *postpaid of The Survey.*

IN this excellent report of a hundred or so pages are the findings of an inquiry made in 1925 by the research staff of the National Industrial Conference Board concerning the organization and activities of medical departments in 501 industrial and mercantile establishments employing a total of over 1,100,000 men and women. It is not essentially a manual for the guidance of those responsible for the operation of such departments, rather a record of work done, presenting incidentally some discussion of methods and standards. There is perhaps no other comparable source of information regarding the medical personnel employed in industrial plants of various types and sizes; the extent of physical examinations; and the volume of work done, as measured in terms of visits to dispensaries. There is a comparison of data for 1924 with that secured for a previous study of a smaller number of plants conducted in 1920. The cost of industrial medical service was found to average $5.14 per employe in 1924 as compared with $4.43 in 1920. The average annual cost ranged from $13.87 per employe in the mining industry to $2.65 per employe in department stores. It should not be assumed that either of these figures represents an ideal cost but rather an average of the costs for services of varying merit and extent. The report offers impressive evidence of the widespread development of medicine in industry and suggests the opportunity found in industrial hygiene for important contributions to the public health.

WADE WRIGHT, M.D.

HOSPITAL LAW, *by John A. Lapp and Dorothy Ketcham. Bruce Publishing Company.* 592 *pp. Price* $8 *postpaid of The Survey.*

PRIMARY GYMNASTICS, *by Niels Bukh. E. P. Dutton.* 149 *pp. Price* $2 *postpaid of The Survey.*

CALISTHENICS, *by S. C. Staley. A. S. Barnes.* 338 *pp. Price* $3 *postpaid of The Survey.*

Social Practice

A TOUCH O' HEATHER—AND OTHER HOMES, *Being a Little Journal to Foster Families. The Children's Bureau of Philadelphia, 311 South Juniper Street, Philadelphia.* 85 *pp. Price 25 cents.*

SHORT popularized descriptions of the foster homes in use through the Children's Bureau at the time of the writing of the book, with a preface on The Foster Child and The Foster Family.

ECONOMIC LIBERALISM, *by Jacob H. Hollander. Abingdon Press.* 197 *pp. Price* $1.50 *postpaid of The Survey.*

TIMELY lectures by the prominent Johns Hopkins economist on the Bennett Foundation at Wesleyan University. He deals simply yet authoritatively with the four cardinal features of economic liberalism—the maintenance of a stable price level; the progressive and faculty scale of taxation; trade unionism; and projects of social reform. In spite of the somewhat pessimistic views of the author this book is itself a guarantee that there is a liberal economics. I rate it as the best book of the year on economic theory. HUGH D. MCCLOKIE

SOCIAL STATISTICS, *by M. C. Elmer. Jesse Miller.* 306 *pp. Price* $2.00 *postpaid of The Survey.*

THE mechanization involved in urban life makes it necessary for all of professional interests to be able to use and interpret figures intelligently. When one turns to the average book on statistics for guidance, he is bewildered by "track-miles," "man-hours," and elaborate tables on the production of tallow. Here is a first compact, adequate discussion of statistical method, written not in the language of the engineer or industrial expert, but in the everyday language of social life—home ownership, boys' clubs, the price of eggs, wayward girls. It should prove invaluable to the professional man or woman, especially the social worker, who feels the need of an intelligent knowledge of statistical theory as applied to his own problems, and yet has neither time nor interest for the mathematical theory involved.

HARVEY ZORBAUGH

Education

THE NORMAL CHILD AND HOW TO KEEP IT NORMAL IN MIND AND MORALS. *by B. Sachs, M.D. Paul B. Hoeber, Inc.* 111 *pp. Price* $1.50 *postpaid of The Survey.*

APPARENTLY we all have been too much upset by the recent movements in child study and psychology. "Let there be only a little science mixed with much proper sentiment," Dr. Sachs says is his recipe for rearing children. About half of his text is divided into four brief chapters which consider in turn infancy, the nursery and pre-school age, the school age and adolescence. Through all of these "common sense" reigns supreme. "There is a time for work and a time for play neither one nor the other should be slighted." "There is no better mind treatment to give a young girl, for instance, than the opportunity to talk herself out freely to a superior trained woman, still young enough to appreciate the difficulties that the young girl has to contend against." And so on. But it is in the latter half of the book that Dr. Sachs discloses the modern menace to the normal child—the influence of the "salacious doctrines of the Austrian school," namely, psychoanalysis. After a few faint gestures of appreciation of their possible, but improbable services to the wisdom of humanity, he declares his belief that "the trouble with the Freudians is that they insist that your mind is always filled with nasty thoughts or that you are trying to hide something. . . . Everything is reduced to sex: and sex, sex, sex dominates the entire inquiry. . . . Wherever we take up the doctrines of the psychoanalysts, they seem to lead to rank absurdities, and also to contradictions. . . . My own personal objection to the entire Freudian system was due chiefly to the recognition of its absurd perversion of the truth and of its logical effects." The effect of logic in the author's denunciation, however, is considerably vitiated by the evident animus which empurples his least allusion to "salacious doctrines."

MOTION PICTURES FOR INSTRUCTION, *by A. P. Hollis. The Century Co.* 450 *pp. Price* $2 *postpaid of The Survey.*

"TEXT" or "classroom" moving pictures, "designed for purely instructional purposes and made by educators for educators" offer a fresh possibility for giving modern school children something more vital than mere "book learning." About 20,000 schools, something like one-fortieth of the total number in this country, now have motion picture projection machines as part of their equipment, and Professor Hollis, film editor for the De Vry Corporation, reports "an urgent demand by school people today for information on where to get suitable films to accompany their regular classroom work and how to use these films so as to produce real educational results." His book aims to meet this need by listing and describing more than 1,500 educational films, arranging groups of them into film libraries and presenting various methods for using motion pictures in the classroom. Obviously convinced that through "school movies" there is a real educational gain to be made, Professor Hollis yet reminds us that "when thousands instead of scores of teachers have used films under varying conditions and for a series of years, we may begin to draw conclusions. For the present the pressing need is to use this new and wonderful tool over and over again, to observe effects, to record results, to confer on procedure and to avoid snap judgments." This book should commend itself to school teachers and administrators for the admirably organized material it contains, the fascinating educational possibilities it suggests and for the writer's open-minded and experimental attitude toward his subject.

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What Is a Social Work Executive?

I. Vision

By ROBERT W. KELSO

WHEN the sub-committee of a sorely troubled board of "charity" directors sets forth, one north, one east, one south, one west, in search of an executive, it is odds they will have even less than four dim little ideas as to what they want in the vacancy they must fill. "Was the last executive ideal?" "No, not exactly. We didn't get along very fast." "Would you be willing to do only what your society has been doing and in the same way?" "Well, no, we want to do better but we don't just see our way."

What, then, constitutes a good executive in this field of social work? It is the purpose of this article and of two others to follow, to analyze the tests of stewardship in the executive's job, in order that emphasis may be placed more nearly where it belongs in setting up qualifications for the captain in this vital professional service.

The fundamental requisite, without which all other claims are vain, is *vision*. And what might that be? Of men who can see visions there are many kinds. There is the student who dreams himself into the back-water of a department of philosophy where he idles his life away in metaphysics. This fellow will not do. There is the man of conceptions that are brilliant but not capable of relation to the stern facts of life. His ailment is hallucinations rather than genius. He too will not do. But there is the third kind of dreamer who has the precious flare for piecing the cubes of experience and past accomplishment into a mosaic of the rising sun. For him the future is filled with practicable plans and ventures and ideals to which the past may be made to contribute its best experience and the present its hardest effort. This man, if he have certain other necessary qualities, is likely to be the builder for the future. At any rate, without this prophetic vision he would not be the constructor. At best he would be but a workman on the job, under the leadership of someone else.

It might perhaps be objected that the demand is for a born genius to work at "charity" pay—obviously an unreasonable requirement. But genius is not essential to breadth of vision in social service. The ability to see a vision of the future—of what the enterprise in hand ought to be as an instrument for advancing the public welfare—is in the last analysis merely the ability to think straight. And that ability is the product of real education. While undoubtedly many a young man or young woman has gone through college and even taken a degree without acquiring the rudiments of an education; and per contra there are some who though they have never had the advantage of a college course, still have highly trained minds, capable of clear and logical conclusion: by and large, your real executive is a person of thorough academic background. We are accustomed to insist upon professional training. As a general proposition, the discourse of professional technique is a collection of empty phrases to the mind that is not grounded in the broad record of human experience, enriched by the thoughts of the wise thinkers of the past.

It is hard for the workman who has been through no serious course of mental training, or for the precept-fed pupil of some exclusive philosophy to see his public as one rounded whole, made up of innumerable rights and obligations, living a compromise life in which the little residue of joint wish and mutual ideal represents progress.

AKIN to vision and invariably associated with it is "other-mindedness," the quality of seeing the problems of social existence from the other fellow's point of view; of appreciating his rights; of getting out of one's self sufficiently to sympathize with him and to include him in one's life service. Benjamin Kidd, the social philosopher, has said that other-mindedness is the hall-mark of progress in civilization. It is a term that we might borrow as a second executive qualification. Mere day's work for workman's pay is not enough in the service of man. Time serving will not create social service. Its activities are not social work. Vision of the future of society, making it practicable thereby to gauge the true values in the executive operation will, if coupled with this other-mindedness which labors for the whole rather than the part, make the director of a social-work enterprise a dynamic factor in progress. Unless he be the holder of this degree—the degree of D.F.P., so to speak—or at least a candidate therefor, busy with his theses, he can do little but consume trust money to the hurt of the rightful beneficiaries.

Applying this reasoning to the executive's job as we find it, two or three illustrations may add clearness. A group of commissioners find it necessary to employ a superintendent of a correctional school for boys. They want a man who can maintain discipline; who can run an establishment economically; and who will be careful in the matter of fire, of runaways, accidents and the like. Their mind is on what they call "efficiency." Five decades of experience

Mr. Kelso's articles on Social Work Inefficiencies in The Survey last fall received so much favorable comment that he has consented to develop the theme further on its positive side. The executive in social work—key person in the erasing of inefficiencies—will be dealt with in three articles, the second and third appearing in the April and May Midmonthlies.

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with boys in their state have shown that herding adolescent boys and youths in such a school is not conducive to the public welfare; but on the contrary leads to the making of perverts and criminals. With an intelligent placing-out system and careful follow-up the institution might serve a very helpful purpose as a temporary shelter or a short disciplinary course.

But this is unknown to the commissioners. They choose an assistant master who has been farm manager. He is a good fellow with the boys; likes to work with the live stock; and is a first-class manager. He has never had a college course and is not self-educated so far as book study is concerned. Ten years have gone by under his superintendency. A visitor today would find every floor polished. Never a water tap leaks; table-cloths and bed linen are immaculate. The store room, the corridors, the stairways, the outside of the buildings, the grounds, are like spotless town; they even curry the Friesian bull! Life in this school goes forward with the exact precision of a military barrack. Boys even stand on line for punishment. Whenever a squad crosses the grounds to perform some special tasks, one boy is always in charge and they walk in step at a smart military stride.

From the point of view of efficiency those commissioners got what they sought. Meanwhile the criminal courts absorb the alumni about as fast as they are graduated. The institution is anti-social in its broader contemplation. No one in its management has vision enough to see that its very efficiency makes it a greater danger to society.

Consider another instance. A while ago a committee sought an executive for a relief agency. There was a staff of visitors in this society and a grist of cases involving a good deal of work each year. The job had been run pretty much on a dole basis by persons grossly underpaid, watched over by a board of directors who met to hear reports of husbandry but did not direct. They realized that the work was being done for very little money, wherefor they were content.

After looking over the field and viewing a few high-priced prospects who didn't want the job unless they were to be given a chance to improve the service, the committee made the rare discovery which many another of like kind had made before them, namely, that there was a minister who could be had at minister's pay. Being a preacher, he was of course honest, and having been trained to the pulpit he was of course a leader. He took the job.

After several years this executive is still rendering exactly the service he gave at the beginning. His motions, fully satisfactory to his board, are well nigh automatic. The operation continues to be a dolanthropic interference in the family life of the poor, devoid of constructive planning for rehabilitation. The staff render loyal service. They work hard. They are worth about what they are paid, which is not quite a living wage. The executive is faithful and will continue so unto death. So far as results can demonstrate it, however, there has been never a vision nor even a dream in the minds of that executive and his directors. Do faithfully from day to day that which your hand finds to do. In this case the brain was located below the wrist!

Turn now to an example of the other sort. A young man from the back country managed by toil and privation to secure good schooling. He became finally the superintendent of a state school for the feebleminded, in the days when we still thought that the feebleminded were only backward and could be taught booklearning. Carrying on his duties under the usual sort of public trusteeship and departmental oversight, he nevertheless grew in the job, and by his constant demonstration and restatement of the problem of the feebleminded became the leader of thought on that subject in this country. His institution ceased to be a 3R process and became a special course in project work in which the capacity of the pupil was the gauge of the method and material used. The world-famous Montessori method with normal children was first developed by him for the subnormal.

In later years, when the institutional care of the feebleminded had reached a high standard and the almshouses and jails had begun to yield up their tragedies for better classification, it was this great dreamer of dreams and seer of visions who developed the extra-mural clinic for feebleminded children and made the public understand that with kindly care and a little protection most of the feebleminded can live comfortably, happily and even helpfully without entering an institution. Yet when this mild-mannered student died, worn out with overwork and twenty years

You'll Be Interested In

Recent Articles, Pamphlets and Books Bearing on Administration

SUGGESTIONS FOR LOCAL CAMPAIGNS, *by Frank Davis Preston.*
A pamphlet issued by the Child Welfare Division, Public Charities Association of Pennsylvania, 311 South Juniper St., Philadelphia. Practical suggestions concerning the organization and publicity of an educational campaign.

BUDGETING EXECUTIVE LEISURE, *by Hugo Diemer, in Management for January.*

OVERHEAD IN SOCIAL WORK, *in Detroit Community Fund News for January.*
An answer to the critics of "overhead" in social work.

HOW SIX COMPANIES FIGURE THEIR PASSENGER-CAR COSTS, *in System for February.*
May help agencies which are wondering how to meet the expense of social workers' automobiles.

In Printers' Ink

DO YOU ADOPT THE "YOU" ATTITUDE WHEN WRITING SALES LETTERS?, *by Frank B. Mahan, February* 10.
The "you" attitude does not consist simply of packing the letter with the word "you."

WHY THE TRANSPLANTED STAR OFTEN FAILS TO MAKE GOOD, *in January* 27.
A word of caution to those who have an eye on the star performer in another agency.

In the American Stationer and Office Manager for January, 1927

DEAR SIR, *by Humphrey D. Howell.*
Suggestions about letter-writing, true but not new.

COORDINATING ACTIVITIES OF DISTANT OFFICES.
A possible suggestion for national and state-wide agencies.

RULES OF A SUCCESSFUL WOMAN OFFICE MANAGER THAT PROMOTE EFFICIENCY.
The rules are: Play fair and have no favorites. No social relationships in the office. Be decisive. Say it in black and white. Devise promotion opportunities.

CAREFUL SELECTION OF OFFICE EMPLOYES WILL SAVE FIRM MONEY, *by Russell J. Waldo.*

In Better Times for February

THE RELATION OF PRIVATE INITIATIVE TO PUBLIC CHARITIES, *by Elihu Root.*
Part of an address delivered at the annual meeting of the New York State Charities Aid Association.

THAT PESKY ANNUAL REPORT, *by John Philip Bramer.*

NOVELTY IN PRINTING PROCESSES.
Rotogravure and offset lend variety to educational and appeal literature at small expense for large orders.

In The Mailbag for February

HOW CAN YOU TELL A GOOD LETTER BEFORE IT'S MAILED, *by Edward H. Schulze.*
Twelve general questions to apply to your appeal letter.

WHAT A WHALE OF A DIFFERENCE, *by Carl Hunt.*
Suggests that if social agencies would translate their appeals into the smallest possible terms as so much a day or so much a week they might get larger contributions.

KEEPING UP WITH THE POST OFFICE.
Helpful advice for social agencies with a large amount of mailing.

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before his time, even though he was the dean of his specialty in America and its great authority throughout the world, he was still serving as an humble institution superintendent for the meager pay we accord to our public servants. He was probably the best "executive" investment his state has ever made.

It might be said that in this reasoning, backed by these disguised illustrations, we ought really to argue for a better order of director. True, we could do that too, if the occasion offered; but the "charity" director has to be taken for just about what he is, with all his faults. In the final issue it is the executive who shapes policy and develops methods—yes, even finds the means for the advancement of his enterprise in accordance with the best reasoning of the time. If the executive is only a faithful choreman, watchman, or laborer, there will never be anything done except the little tasks laid down by the directors. The talent will be buried in the ground. To many a competent executive the board of "managers" are like a millstone upon his neck. Yet they are his trial, and it is for him to work with them and to increase their understanding of the true nature of the enterprise. Obviously he cannot teach them unless he himself knows what it is all about and whither it should tend.

More about Mileage

IN his monthly page in The Survey, December 15, Elwood Street suggested for automobiles used in the service of an organization a standard allowance of seven cents a mile to cover all costs—gasoline, oil, tires, repairs, insurance, depreciation. From the discussion which followed came this correspondence between Mr. Street and Mary C. Raymond of Miami. It raises the interesting question, Who should pay the initial cost of the car, worker or agency?

From Miss Raymond:

Because of very strong public opinion in opposition to an organization furnishing transportation to workers, we have for the past few years required every social worker in our county to furnish her own automobile and to pay for its up-keep. A flat allowance of $50 per month, regardless of the work done, has been made and this amount is expected to cover, over a period of a year, the original cost of a Ford car and running expenses, taking into consideration the sale price of the car at the end of that time.

We have not found this plan satisfactory and believe if we could work out a schedule on a mileage basis, which would also include an allowance for depreciation, that it would be more satisfactory. This would not provide, however, for the difficulty we face in requiring every new worker to make a personal outlay of several hundred dollars as a down payment on her car. Many workers are unable to do this, even if the money is reimbursed in monthly instalments. On occasion we have advanced the full down payment and reduced subsequent monthly allowances, but this has worked a hardship, for reduced allowances do not cover the running cost plus payments.

Please bear in mind in any comments you may make that our situation here in Miami is largely influenced by the fact that public transportation is wholly inadequate and that it is essential for every worker to have a car if he is to get anything done. You must also bear in mind that the Beach is eight miles from the town and any recreation on the Beach, which is practically the only source of recreation, is almost prohibitive without a car. This is largely responsible for workers using organization cars for personal pleasures and the consequent criticism.

We are preparing our budget for the next campaign and we would welcome any helpful suggestions which you may have to make from your own experience. We feel we must make a more satisfactory adjustment of this automobile situation and we would be very grateful for your help.

From Mr. Street:

I should certainly say that if public opinion would allow it you should purchase your own automobiles when the social worker did not find it convenient to buy them and then pay the expense of operating the cars with the workers reimbursing you at the rate of seven cents a mile for all personal use of these cars.

If, however, public opinion is dead set against such purchase I would suggest that if a worker has not sufficient money available to purchase the car you advance to that worker the sum necessary; that you arrange for the worker to pay you for the car in equal instalments over the presumable life of the car, say for one year or two years, on the basis of notes, without interest, made out to the social agency which employs the worker. Thus if a car cost $480 and its life was two years, that worker would pay $20 for twenty-four months without interest.

I would then arrange for the society which employed the worker to reimburse the worker at the rate of seven cents a mile for all traveling done in this car on business of the agency. This would not include mileage riding to work or riding home from work. I would have the worker keep a record of the places to which she drove with the car for the agency, recording each stop and the number of miles which the speedometer showed. Then you could check up both on the mileage and on the actual calls which were made.

I suggest the rate of seven cents a mile because that has been shown by exhaustive analyses of costs of Fords, Dodges and Hupmobiles to be the average cost of operation of cars in fleets including depreciation, insurance, gasoline, oil, and repairs.

In this way the social worker would have her own car for her own personal use at a cost of say $20 a month plus upkeep, minus seven cents a mile for actual service. If the worker drove 1,000 miles in a month for the organization she would get an allowance of $70. This would cover her payment and leave her $50 for repairs, tires, gasoline, oil, insurance and depreciation.

I think this plan would enable you to be free from criticism, would represent the operation of your car on as low a cost as is feasible, and would mean the least possible burden on the social worker.

Envelopes

OF course the mail clerk or your secretary opens your mail and disposes of the envelopes. But have you instructed her to note any incoming envelope with an *incorrect* address, so that you or she may correct the error if some magazine, national agency, or other valued correspondent has your name or address wrongly listed? ARTHUR DUNHAM

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Over My Desk

A Monthly Talk with Executives

By ELWOOD STREET
Director, Community Council of St. Louis

Why Not Winter Vacations, Too?

BAILEY B. BURRITT, director of the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, New York City, believes in mid-winter and spring as well as summer vacations. Not long ago he asked each worker to arrange the dates of his vacation with this view ahead. In order to make clear the plan he gave an excerpt from the Office Manual of the A.I.C.P.:

Permanent employes who have been on the staff 1 year or longer are entitled to four weeks vacation with salary, 3 weeks between June 1 and October 1 and 1 week between January 1 and May 1.

New employes coming on staff during the fiscal year, which begins October 1, are entitled to vacations as follows:

Those added to staff during Oct., Nov., Dec., full vacation
Those added to staff during Jan., Feb., 3 weeks (1 in Spring, 2 in Summer)
Those added to staff during March, April, 2 weeks (Summer)
Those added to staff during May, June, July, 1 week

When a holiday falls within a vacation, it is not counted in that period but is added thereto. If work in the department demands it, such added vacation is taken at some time other than the vacation period.

When Photographing Individuals

Every once in a while we hear of a social agency getting into serious difficulties because it has used, without authorization, in its publicity a photograph of some individual who sues the social agency for damages or causes other difficulties. To avoid this, the agency which plans to use the photograph of a living person or persons for advertising purposes might well consider the desirability of having in its possession a written statement authorizing its use. Printer's Ink in its January 13 issue says:

These written statements may simply be a letter of agreement or they may be what is usually called a "model release." A model release form that is widely used reads, 'For value received, I hereby consent to the use for advertising or trade purposes, of the original or reproduction of the photograph, portrait, picture or likeness of myself—of . . . ., a minor, of whom I am (parent) (guardian)—by the artist, by the reproducer, by . . . . or by any of its customers or other interested parties. Dated . . . . Signature . . . . Note: This blank must be signed by the model, if of age, or by the parent or guardian of a minor, before bill covering work will be paid.

Keeping Salary and Service Data

Stockton Raymond, general secretary of the Family Welfare Society of Boston, writes that he thinks the following plan will be suggestive to readers of The Survey in keeping a service and salary record. This record could be worked out on chart or quadrate paper which has one heavy line for every twelve spaces. In the first column on the left would come the name of the worker. Each vertical column of twelve vertical spaces would be given up to one year. Each vertical column within that year would represent one month. The heavy lines would divide the years. A heavy line in the horizontal space after each worker's name would begin at the point which represented the month and the year when the employment began. The salary of the worker would be added in red ink at the beginning of the line, and the subsequent salary increases entered at the proper point. Termination of employment would be indicated by red lines through the name and a red bar at the point in the chart which represents the time the worker left. This provides a record of service and salary which is helpful in determining salary increases.

Australia Does It, Too

From the antipodes comes a letter which will interest readers of Over My Desk. It is from S. Greig Smith, secretary of the Charity Organization Society of Melbourne, Australia. It follows:

Your Over My Desk column in The Survey for 15th June, 1926, commends the efforts of a bank to strengthen business and good will by making its committee rooms available for community meetings of various kinds, and suggests that many social agencies might, with advantage, "go and do likewise." I am a long way "behind the fair" in commenting now on your paragraph, which has only just caught my eye, but I thought that you might be interested to know that this society has been following out the plan referred to ever since November, 1924, when we achieved our own building and consequent better office accommodation. We cordially invite and encourage other social welfare agencies who desire such facilities to hold their meetings in our Board Room at any time, if it be available. During the last six months of 1926, as many as 68 meetings were held, and during the past twelve months 14 distinct organizations or committees have been meeting under our roof.

May I take this opportunity of assuring you that I find your column in The Survey most interesting, inspiring and suggestive?

The literature which Mr. Smith sent gives an interesting list of the societies, organizations and movements which have held meetings at Morris House during the twelve months according to the plan described in his letter:

C. O. S. Executive Committee, Victorian Baby Health Centres Council, Free Kindergarten Union, Children's Welfare Association, Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, Victorian Provident Aid Society, Central Unemployment Relief Committee, Conference on Unemployment, Committee on Causes and Extent of Unemployment, Case Workers' Conference, Melbourne Orphanage, Lost Dogs' Home, Santa Casa Rest Home for Children, Seaside Garden Home for Boys.

Being Under One Roof Pays

Karl deSchweinitz, general secretary of the Family Society of Philadelphia, declares: "The social service building idea is a means of more effective and more economical operation. We have saved ourselves untold quantities of time by all being together in one building. The most interesting economy has been the reduction in telephone costs due to the installation of tie-lines which a building makes possible."

Discount Your Bills

Is your agency making all the savings it might by discounting bills on which discount for cash is allowed by the tenth of each month?

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GOSSIP: of People and Things

The Conference Approaches

WITH the National Conference of Social Work only two months away (May 11-18 at Des Moines), the general secretary and local committee are completing arrangements for handling an attendance of five thousand. Howard R. Knight, general secretary, visited Des Moines in February and verified with the local committee meeting places of the twelve divisions of the conference and hotel reservations of the twenty-three kindred groups. The general meetings will be held in the Shrine Temple and the division meetings there or in the immediate neighborhood. Headquarters of the conference and of the kindred groups will be in the Temple.

The Rev. R. B. MacHatton, of Plymouth Congregational Church, Des Moines, has been appointed chairman of a state committee on church and ministerial cooperation. The program of the conference will give special attention to the rural church as a social force and the Sunday evening meeting will be addressed by Rabbi A. H. Silver of Cleveland on The Church and Social Justice. A plan has been proposed by Dr. E. H. Lauer, director of the extension division of the state university, to send one member of each church within the state to the conference. Governor Hammill has written the governor of the other states suggesting that he attend in person or send a representative.

The usual rate of fare and a half for the round trip has been granted by the railways, so that conference members from a distance will be saved considerable expense. If you live in Maine or Miami, you may save enough to carry you through the entire conference period.

A Real Probation Officer Wanted

AN examination for chief probation officer of the Juvenile Court of Cook County (Chicago) will be held within the next two months. The judges of the Juvenile Court are interested in securing only the best qualified person for this position; residence is waived, experience in juvenile court work is not necessary. Executive ability, education and experience in social work, that gives promise of successful work in one of the most highly organized juvenile courts in this country, is required. The salary is established at $7,500 a year. The examination is not conducted under civil service auspices. The Supreme Court of Illinois decided some years ago that appointments for chief probation officer were to be made by the judge of the Juvenile Court. Tenure of office is for life or during satisfactory service. Officers of the Juvenile Court are eligible to the pensions for public service in Cook County. Judge Arnold, in accordance with a long established practice of this court, has asked a special citizens' committee to conduct this examination. Its members are Henry P. Chandler, chairman; Rose J. McHugh, secretary; D. F. Kelly, Harris A. Dobbs and Dr. Solomon Freehof. Further announcements will be made within a short time and inquiries may be addressed to the secretary of the Judge's Committee for the Selection of the Court's Chief Probation Officer, 2240 West Roosevelt Road, Chicago.

Opportunities for Training

THE well-equipped student who wishes to undertake intensive training for social work has, this year, a tempting list of fellowships and scholarships for which he may apply. In addition to those recently announced in this department of The Survey, are two fellowships offered by the Pennsylvania School of Social and Health Work, 311 S. Juniper St., Philadelphia: One full fellowship, $1,000 in addition to tuition and other fees—in association with the Children's Aid Society of Pennsylvania, open only to college graduates with the understanding that at least one additional year will be spent as a staff member of the Children's Aid Society of Pennsylvania; one full fellowship, $1,000 in addition to tuition and fees, open to a college graduate, in any social work department. The school offers, too, several working scholarships and tuition scholarships, the use of a loan fund, and residence in settlements at reduced rates. All applications must be made by May 15.

The Chest and National Business

THE American Association for Community Organization is studying the practice of community chests in soliciting contributions from national business concerns which have local branch offices. In many instances the branch manager must consult the headquarters of the firm in a distant city before contributing company funds to the local chest campaign. This has resulted in a multiplicity of appeals which is proving vexatious to national business concerns. The A.A.C.O. has asked its members for their experiences and opinions so that a uniform procedure can be suggested as a way out for both the chest and national business.

The Chest in a Small City

THE large number of small-city community chests—187 in cities of less than 50,000 population—has made necessary a special service offered them by the American Association for Community Organization, 215 Fourth Ave., New York. Principles and Methods of Organization in Cities where Less than $100,000 Is Raised Annually is the first of a series of pamphlets being sent to these federations. The A.A.C.O has also prepared and sent out to the small-city chests for criticism a simple outline of the essential duties of a chest executive in a city raising under $100,000.

Pennsylvania Social Workers Meet

THE largest meeting in the history of the Pennsylvania Conference of Social Work was held in Philadelphia February 9-12, in collaboration with the annual All-Philadelphia Conference on Social Work. Both conferences were preceded by six institutes for social workers, limited to 25 members each and out of a possible total enrollment of 150 there were 128. The most popular courses were in family case-work, given by Margaret E. Rich of New York; interpretation of personality as a case-work process, by Betsey Libby of Philadelphia; and placement and supervision of children in foster homes, by Edith M. H. Baylor of Boston. Elections of state conference officers for the ensuing year were as follows: President, D. W. Weist, Scranton; vice presidents, Alice Hill, Harrisburg, Judge P. N. Schaffer, Reading, Rev. G. B. Gilbert, Pittsburgh. The Public Charities Association of Pennsylvania will continue to furnish the executive direction of the conference. Cora D. Greene of the P.C.A., was elected executive secretary.

The Schick of Araby

THE Board of Health of Harrison, N. J., has not gone into the movie business, and it has been put to it to explain that fact. It announced recently that the Schick test is used to determine the susceptibility of persons to diphtheria, and that it is not a moving picture nor anything connected with the Arabian desert. The explanation was thought wise after the receipt of the following letter from a mother: "I refuse positively to permit either of my sons to take the 'Schick test.' I have read the book and seen the play and want you to know I don't approve of them."

Miscellaneous

A PLAN for joint financing of social agencies in Chicago has been developed by the Committee on Publicity Methods of the Chicago Council of Social Agencies and will be presented to the member agencies in the near future.

MANY WHO SAW the Girl Scout annual report of a year ago said it could not be improved upon. They were mistaken. This year's report is a delight. An Indian tapestry in color on a brilliant red cover gives the theme for the report—Girl Scout Weaving in Average American Communities and Typical Human Situations. The report is written in narrative style a la Sally Lucas Jean, and is the story of one Margaret who stirred up the "poky" people of Cedarvale and organized a Girl Scout Troop.

OUR NEIGHBOR, the New Republic, has opened a bookstore. "There was abundant counsel against trying it," they announce. "One has only to look at the mortality statistics to feel afraid." But this is a different kind of bookstore. For one thing, it has a huge redwood table and comfortable chairs for its patrons who want to browse. It caters especially to New Republic readers in New York City and throughout the country, by mail. It will give book orders the intelligent treatment they so often fail to receive and one may feel safe in writing in "I want a book for a . .". The store is at 107 East 34th Street, New York City.

DR. HAVEN EMERSON, who was employed by Mayor Nicholas of Boston to investigate and recommend improvements in Boston's program for the care of the tuberculous, has recently presented frank and stimulating discussions of the results of his survey. The Boston Tuberculosis Association has been given new courage and assistance in forming an excellent program for future activities, and radical changes are under way in the administration of the city institutions giving care to such patients.

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A COMMITTEE of the Boston Council of Social Agencies has been at work for six months trying to learn more about the care of the chronic sick. A group of students directed by Dr. Lucile Eaves is engaged in a study of chronic patients cared for by the Community Health Association, and other studies based on hospital social-service records are planned.

THE PENNSYLVANIA Training School at Morganza was recently destroyed by fire at night. The loss is estimated at $250,000.

A FILE of all social-service jobs to be filled and of all social workers wishing jobs has been instituted by the Community Council of St. Louis, with Eleanor Myers in charge.

FINAL AMALGAMATION of the Social Service Club of Maryland and the Maryland State Conference of Social Work took effect with the election of the state conference officers who took office in January: President, Ignatius Bjurlee, principal of the School for the Deaf, Frederick, Md. Other officers include Anna D. Ward and Ruth M. Tingley, Family Welfare Association, Baltimore; Paul T. Beisser, Henry Watson Children's Aid Association, Baltimore; Howard C. Hill, Prisoner's Aid Association of Maryland; Mary M. Wootton, Child Labor Bureau; Dorothy Kahn, Hebrew Benevolent Society, Baltimore; Beulah Hunt, Children's Aid Society of Talbot County.

THE JOHN HOWARD CENTER, the new Home of the Prisoners' Aid Association of Maryland, was opened in Baltimore recently. It serves released prisoners, probationers, and other men in need of assistance in the way of employment and home and cooperates with other agencies engaged in Big Brother work.

THE SOCIAL WORKERS STUDY CLUB of Youngstown, has been following a different plan of meetings this year. Each monthly meeting has been scheduled at a different agency headquarters.

AMERICA has 121 legally constituted foundations for altruistic purposes. A recent bulletin of the Russell Sage Foundation summarizes the purpose of each, with the name and address of the responsible officer. For copies, address the Russell Sage Foundation, 130 East 22 Street, New York City.

KATHERINE D. HARDWICK will conduct ten conferences for public health nurses at the Simmons College School of Social Service, Boston. Directors of Boston social agencies will assist her in acquainting the nurses with resources available for the assistance of needy patients.

FLORENCE TAYLOR (Mrs. Graham Romeyn Taylor) has been giving half time recently to the headquarters office of the American Association of Social Workers, assisting Dorothea deSchweinitz.

J. B. GWIN, staff assistant to the vice-chairman of the American Red Cross, postscribes a recent letter: "Hello, K! Have just returned from disaster work in Florida. That task is almost completed."

LOUISE STRACHAN, director of the Department of Child Health Education, National Tuberculosis Association, addressed the annual meeting of the Iowa Tuberculosis Association in Des Moines in February and conferred with members of a special committee of the Iowa State Teachers Association concerning a study of how the colleges and normal training schools in Iowa meet the requirements of the physical education law in preparing teachers for school health instruction.

MEDALS for "distinguished social service to the city of New York" were awarded this year at the seventh annual Better Times dinner to Robert W. deForest and Gov. Alfred E. Smith, both of whom have the additional and unique distinction of being native-born New Yorkers.

RAYMOND CLAPP has been appointed to succeed Rowland Haynes as director of the Cleveland Welfare Federation. Mr. Clapp has for several years been on the staff of the Welfare Federation as secretary of the Budget Committee and assistant to the director. William I. Lacy succeeds Mr. Clapp.

Elections and Appointments

BESS B. ALLEN, formerly executive secretary, Evansville (Ind.) Tuberculosis Association, as Red Cross social worker, National Sanatarium, Marion, Ind.

LOUISE BARKER as psychologist, Women's Protective Association, Cleveland, succeeding Eleanor Rowland Wembridge, who has recently been appointed referee of the Juvenile Court.

KATHERINE BEASLEY, formerly executive secretary, Humboldt County (Cal.) Dept. of Public Welfare, as executive of the newly organized Contra Costa County (Cal.) Social Service Dept., with headquarters in Martinez.

EDITH BENGSTON, formerly assistant at Kenosha (Wis.) Social Service League, as general secretary, Oshkosh (Wis.) Bureau of Family Service.

OLIVIA BROOKS as a member of the staff, Boston Children's Aid Association.

F. E. BURLESON as executive secretary, San Antonio Community Chest.

REV. R. P. DOREMUS as president, Gloucester (Mass.) Associated Charities.

DR. A. GRANT FLEMING, managing director of the Anti-Tuberculosis and General Health League of Montreal, as acting director of the newly created Dept. of Preventive Medicine, McGill University.

ELIZABETH M. FIHE as assistant state's attorney, Illinois, assigned to the Chicago Juvenile Court.

MADELEINE FOSTER as caseworker, assisting in the examination and classification of prisoners, Mass. Dept. of Mental Diseases.

LOUISE FRYE, formerly executive secretary, Charlotte (N. C.) Chapter, A.R.C., as field representative, A.R.C., for western North Carolina.

MARGARET GILBERT, formerly on the staff of the Pacific Branch, A.R.C., as executive secretary, Los Angeles Chapter, A.R.C.

HENRY S. GODFREY as publicity secretary, New York Tuberculosis and Health Association.

CORA D. GREEN as educational secretary, Public Charities Association of Pennsylvania, succeeding Ernest H. Cole.

CONSTANCE HANNA, formerly with the Cleveland Association for Crippled and Disabled, to the staff of the Ohio State Dept. of Health, Division of Crippled Children.

MARGARET HAYDEN as visitor, Assoc. of Family Welfare, Fall River, Mass.

MARGUERITE HASKELL as president Gloucester (Mass.) S.P.C.C.

WILLIAM F. HIGBY, formerly executive secretary, San Francisco Tuberculosis Association, as secretary of the Dept. of Social Work, San Francisco Community Chest.

FLORENCE KELLEY as educational secretary, Cambridge (Mass.) Anti-Tuberculosis Association, succeeding Mildred MacDonald.

HELEN KINQUIST as secretary, Social Service Exchange, Sioux City, Ia.

ISABEL L. LAW, R.N., as assistant secretary, Bronx Committee, New York Tuberculosis and Health Association, succeeding Frances Sloane.

EDWARD D. LYNDE, formerly associate director, Cleveland Associated Charities, as general secretary, succeeding James F. Jackson, deceased.

LEO McCARTHY as office manager of the Community Council of St. Louis and manager of the Central Purchasing Bureau.

MARGARET McCARTHY as hospital social worker, U. S. Naval Hospital, Chelsea, Mass.

GEORGE E. McDONALD as director municipal welfare department, Gloucester, Mass.

SUSAN MARCH as Sheppard-Towner nurse in Geuaga County, Ohio.

PAUL MEINAM as executive secretary, San Francisco Tuberculosis Association, succeeding William F. Higby.

ELIZABETH K. MORRISON, for five years with the Y.W.C.A. in Shanghai as general secretary, Central Branch, Chicago Y.W.C.A.

LITERATURE

CHILD HEALTH IN SMALL COMMUNITIES—Bulletins describing the Commonwealth Fund child health demonstrations—two in small cities, two in rural counties. No. 1, Program and Policies. No. 2, Marion County, Ore. No. 3, Athens, Ga. No. 4, Progress Report. Mailed free on application to Director of Publications, Room 1648, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York.

THE SCHOOL PARENT—Keeps in touch with events in the New York Public Schools and Parents Associations weekly in The School Parent. Send subscription price of $1.00 to the United Parents Association of Greater New York, 152 W. 42nd Street, New York City.

FINANCIAL FEDERATIONS—by William J. Norton. Reprints of five articles which appeared in The Survey, 1922 and 1923. Many puzzling questions answered by the director of the Detroit Community Fund. Price 25 cents a copy. The Survey, 112 E. 19th St., New York.

EAST BY WEST—A special number of Survey Graphic devoted entirely to an interpretation of the Japanese and Chinese in America and at home. An excellent background for the newspaper despatches of today. Original price 50 cents—now 25 cents a copy. Survey Graphic, 112 E. 19th St., New York.

CITY HEALTH—A special number of Survey Graphic giving a well rounded picture of the status of the fight for public health in our cities large and small with suggestions of ways in which the layman can help. Original price 50 cents—now 25 cents a copy. Survey Graphic, 112 E. 19th St., New York.

WILLIAM F. OGBURN, of the faculty of Columbia University, as professor of sociology, University of Chicago, effective July 1.

PURCELLE PECK as itinerant instructor in home hygiene, A.R.C., in the Pacific area.

MARY C. PUTNAM, R.N., as executive secretary, Bristol County (Mass.) Public Health Association, succeeding Daisy M. Hanscom, R.N.

E. RADDER as publicity secretary, Erie Community Chest.

RUTH ROBINSON as substitute director, West Newton (Mass.) Community Center, succeeding Hattiemae Austin.

JENNIE THOMPSON SANDERSON, formerly with the Boston Dispensary, as case supervisor, Florence Crittenden League of Boston.

EDITH SAWYER, for ten years with the Y.W.C.A. in Shanghai, as general secretary, Central Branch, Chicago Y.W.C.A.

MRS. SAMUEL SILVERMAN (formerly Ray Ruth Sohn) as a member of the staff, Jewish Orphans' Home, Palms, Calif.

R. WEBB SPARKS, formerly director of promotion, Indianapolis Chamber of Commerce, as director of publicity, Community Welfare, Inc., St. Paul.

HELEN STORY, who has been acting case supervisor, Family Service Organization, Louisville, as general secretary Norfolk United Charities.

H. MARGARET WHITCOMB, formerly chief probation officer, Helena, Ark., as field representative, A.R.C., for Northern Oklahoma.

Resignations

F. T. LANE, for the past five years executive secretary, Urban League of Kansas City, has resigned to take charge of a loan campaign organized by local Negroes.

EMILY SIMS MARCONNIER and William Dings from the publicity department, Community Fund, St. Louis.

JUANITA D. MENHINICH as director, Red Cross Service, U. S. Veterans' Hospital, Kingsbridge Road, New York City.

DOROTHY PHILBRICK as field director, U. S. Naval Hospital, Portsmouth, N. H.

Deaths

GENEVA BATEMAN, formerly on the staffs of the Illinois Children's Home and Aid Society, the Juvenile Court and the American Red Cross, died on January 29.

MRS. WALTER LARGE, prominent in Red Cross work and instrumental in the establishment of the Westchester County (N. Y.) Council of Social Agencies.

DR. EDGAR THOMPSON SHIELDS, formerly chief of the Tuberculosis Clinics, Pennsylvania State Dept. of Health.

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IF YOU will write *immediately,* it is not too late to apply for one of the $1,200 fellowships to be awarded in April to individuals in the following groups: (1) graduates of accredited colleges, (2) visiting teachers, (3) probation officers, (4) students from foreign countries, and (5) social workers with experience, including those desiring special preparation in the psychiatric field.

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SOFT COAL AND HARD FACTS

(*Continued from page* 774)

the mines. But while the depletion of the older coal seams, improvements in transportation, the swifter development of mechanization, were all tending to give the non-union operators in the newer fields a competitive advantage over the miners' allies in the older fields, the present leadership of the union has seemed to build its entire policy upon a variant of the slogan under which the British miners recently went to default, "Not a penny off the pay, not a minute on the day."

With unemployment and intermittent employment rife throughout the older fields, the union has stood pat on the $7.50 minimum rate established by President Wilson's Bituminous Coal Commission in 1920. As a result, many of the union-controlled operators have had to shut down completely or to work their mines only when the market made it possible for them to pay their bills. The union has withdrawn the charters of a number of its own locals where the men, rather than go without work, agreed to work below the scale, and a number of their greatest former allies, like the Consolidation and Pittsburgh coal companies, after shutting down many of their mines completely for a time, finally declared their agreement with the union defunct and reopened under individual agreements with miners who were willing to disregard the contract scale (see The Survey, July 1, 1926).

There has been no evidence of an effective desire on the part of either the miners' union or the operators in the older fields to set up any joint machinery for analyzing their joint problems and devising a realistic program for solving it. They have drifted along with an ostrich-like disregard for the great economic shift to the newer non-union fields, which has left hundreds of old mining villages desolate and converted the equipment of many an old but far from exhausted mine into junk. The miners and operators in conference in Miami sprung upon one another hastily considered schemes for a sliding wage-scale based upon wages in the non-union mines, or for some kind of permanent joint committee empowered to employ lawyers, engineers, railroad experts and other advisers to secure "conditions that will give a proper return to capital and advance the living standards of employes; reduce hazards; promote a sales policy to destroy the practice of selling below cost of production; work for readjustment of freight-rates and cooperate in legislative matters." But, these proposals came to nothing. The joint scale sub-committee, appointed to draft a new contract supplanting the Jacksonville agreement, reported itself hopelessly deadlocked. Eight days after its organization, the conference adjourned sine die.

Phil H. Penna, formerly president of the United Mine Workers of America, who represented an important group of operators at Miami, solemnly pronounced a judgment which if it had come from an outsider would probably have provoked even his resentment. "It seems," he declared to his fellow conferees, "that we are incapable of conducting this business. We should have someone come in from the outside and do it for us." But who is there to come in? In 1924, a presidential election year, Secretaries Hoover and Davis intervened to prevent a rupture that threatened to embarrass the federal administration on the eve of a na-

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tional campaign. This is not a presidential year. Besides, the great economic shift which in 1924 had not as yet definitely tilted the scales, has now so firmly established the newer non-union fields in command of the market that a suspension in the older fields will probably cause no fatal inconvenience to consumers, especially since many of the great vertical industries, like the Ford Motor Company and United States Steel, command an adequate supply on their own terms. Moreover, these vast companies whose influence upon public opinion is great, are conspicuously non-union and their alliance in principle will tend to strengthen the morale of the operators in the newer fields and deprive the miners of one of their greatest moral assets. Mark Hanna and William McKinley helped to establish the miners' union, convinced that collective bargaining was to the advantage of the industry and the consuming public. Their successors, either through indifference or conviction, are helping to destroy it. It is this shift in the control of public policy concurrent with the great economic shift that has created the situation implicit in Mr. Penna's statement.

If a strike comes, as now seems inevitable, its greatest initial hardships will be visited upon the union miners who with their families number some million and a half human beings, upon some thousands of independent operators, and upon the small communities in which their mines are located. The miners' union and the machinery of collective bargaining which is the growth of generations may be temporarily shattered. But the whole drift of modern management makes the organization of the workers an economic necessity. To assume that the miners in the unorganized fields will indefinitely submit to arbitrary discipline and arbitrary control of their wages would be to ignore the entire history of the industry. For lack of statesmanlike leadership either in the industry or at Washington, the prospect is that the industry will have to fight itself back to the opportunity which, since 1924 more particularly, it has been squandering. And for this, not only the miners and the operators, but the entire public will have to pay an incalculable price.

SEEING RED IN CANTON

(*Continued from page* 776)

million pounds sterling from the imperial government has not covered the loss to British shipping and trade. Yet many Hongkong residents still assume, comments Colonel Malone in his New China, the report of an investigation just published in London by the Independent Labour Party, "that trading relations can be improved and the safety of the handful of British dwelling among millions of Chinese secured by the sending of punitive expeditions against Chinese cities."

Americans still enjoy a residue of respect and affection in China from the return of the Boxer Indemnity. Many thinking Chinese now realize that America has let herself be drawn into the joint-memoranda, joint-notes and warnings, and joint-representations of the other powers. Yet they dare to believe that America can still act independently. It is not too late to take an independent stand.

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DIRECTORY OF SOCIAL AGENCIES

AMERICAN BIRTH CONTROL LEAGUE—President, Margaret Sanger, 104 Fifth Avenue, New York City. Objects: To educate American people in the various aspects of the dangers of uncontrolled procreation; to establish centers where married persons may receive contraceptive advice from duly licensed physicians. Life membership $1.00; Birth Control Review (monthly magazine) $2.00 per year.

AMERICAN HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION—Alice L. Edwards, executive secretary, 617 Mills Bldg., Washington, D. C. Organized for betterment of conditions in home, school, institution and community. Publishes monthly Journal of Home Economics: office of editor, 617 Mills Bldg., Washington, D. C.; of business manager, 1211 Cathedral St., Baltimore, Md.

AMERICAN SOCIETY FOR THE CONTROL OF CANCER—Dr. George A. Soper, managing director, 25 West 43rd Street, New York. To collect, collate and disseminate information concerning the symptoms, diagnosis, treatment and prevention. Publications free on request. Annual membership dues, $5.00.

AMERICAN SOCIAL HYGIENE ASSOCIATION—370 Seventh Ave., New York. To provide a better understanding of the social hygiene movement; to advance sound sex education; to combat prostitution and sex delinquency; to aid public authorities in the campaign against the venereal diseases; to advise in organization of state and local social-hygiene programs. Annual membership dues $2.00 including monthly journal.

CHILD WELFARE COMMITTEE OF AMERICA, Inc.—730 Fifth Avenue, New York. To secure home life for normal dependent children in preference to institutions; to secure Mothers Allowance laws in states having none; to urge adequate appropriations for home aid; to promote proper laws affecting adoption, boarding out and placing out of dependent children; to aid in the enforcement of these laws. States Council of Committee comprises volunteer representatives in practically every state. Sophie Irene Loeb, President; Governor Alfred E. Smith, Honorary President; Margaret Woodrow Wilson, First Vice-President; Edward Fisher Brown, Executive Secretary.

CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA—C. C. Carstens, director. 130 E. 22nd Street, New York City. A league of children's agencies and institutions to secure improved standards and methods in their various fields of work. It also cooperates with other children's agencies, cities, states, churches, fraternal orders and other civic groups to work out worth-while results in phases of child welfare in which they are interested.

THE CHILDREN'S VILLAGE, INCORPORATED—Dobbs-Ferry-on-Hudson, New York. A national, non-sectarian training school scientifically equipped for the study, education and development of problem boys and girls, on commitment and by private arrangement—ages 7 to 16. Supported largely by voluntary contributions. For further information address Leon C. Faulkner, Managing Director.

COUNCIL OF WOMEN FOR HOME MISSIONS—156 Fifth Avenue, New York. Composed of 22 Protestant national women's mission boards. Florence E. Quinlan, Executive Secretary.
Work among Farm and Cannery Migrants, Summer service for college students, Laura H. Parker, Executive Supervisor.
Bureau of Reference for Migrating People, follow-up of New Americans, Raymond E. Cole, Executive.

EYE SIGHT CONSERVATION COUNCIL OF AMERICA—L. W. Wallace, President; Guy A. Henry, General-Director, Times Bldg., New York. Conducts a national educational campaign to promote eye hygiene. Urges correction of eye defects, protection against hazards, proper lighting. Comprehensive publications—lantern slides—lecture material. Cooperation of social agencies invited.

FEDERAL COUNCIL OF THE CHURCHES OF CHRIST IN AMERICA—Constituted by 28 Protestant communions. Rev. C. S. Macfarland and Rev. S. M. Cavert, Gen. Sec's; 105 E. 22nd St., N. Y. C.
Dept. of Research and Education, Rev. F. E. Johnson, Sec'y.
Commissions: Church and Social Service, Rev. W. M. Tippy, Sec'y; International Justice and Goodwill: Rev. S. L. Gulick, Sec'y; Church and Race Relations: Dr. G. E. Haynes, Sec'y.

GIRLS FRIENDLY SOCIETY IN AMERICA—15 East 40th Street, New York. Girls and women working together to uphold Christian standards of daily living in the home, in the business world, and in the community. Numbers nearly 60,000, with branches in 44 states.

HAMPTON INSTITUTE—Trains Negro and Indian youth for community service. Advanced courses: agriculture, builders, business, home-economics, normal. Publishes "Southern Workman" and free material on Negro problems. J. E. Gregg, principal.

JOINT COMMITTEE ON METHODS OF PREVENTING DELINQUENCY—Graham Romeyn Taylor, executive director, 50 East 42nd Street, New York. To promote the adoption of sound methods in this field, with particular reference to psychiatric clinics, visiting teacher work, and training for these and similar services; to conduct related studies, education and publication; and to interpret the work of the Commonwealth Fund Program for the Prevention of Delinquency.

The Teeth Gnasher

"MR. WADDICK frequently viewed with alarm and almost daily stood aghast."*

You know the type—the professional teeth gnasher. He damns everything from bolshevism to the Republican Party. He wants back the good old days when people were pure and noble and witches were burned at the stake. To him social workers are meddlesome uplifters and psychiatrists, if he has heard of them, dangerous faddists.

This twice-a-month page is aimed at the teeth gnasher. If he should, in a weak moment, investigate the work of any of the organizations listed here, he would discover that social work is not an emotional outlet for sentimentalists. It is a program of constructive action, backed by sound research.

The teeth gnasher is a challenge to every social worker. When next you meet one make it your personal responsibility to get him interested in the work of any one of these social agencies.

*Mr. Podd by Freeman Tilden (Macmillan).

NATIONAL BOARD OF THE YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATIONS—Mrs. Robert E. Speer, president; Miss Mabel Cratty, general secretary, 600 Lexington Avenue, New York City. This organization maintains a staff of executive and traveling secretaries to cover work in the United States in 1,034 local Y. W. C. A.'s on behalf of the industrial, business, student, foreign born, Indian, Colored and younger girls. It has 159 American secretaries at work in 49 centres in the Orient, Latin America and Europe.

NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE Wiley H. Swift, acting general secretary, 215 Fourth Avenue, New York. To improve child labor legislation; to conduct investigation in local communities; to advise on administration; to furnish information. Annual membership, $2, $5, $10, $25 and $100 includes monthy publication, "The American Child."

NATIONAL CHILD WELFARE ASSOCIATION, INC. (est. 1912, incorp. 1914), 70 Fifth Ave., N. Y. C. (tel. Chelsea 8774). Promotes as its chief object the building of character in the children of America through the harmonious development of their bodies, minds, and spirits. Its method is, in cooperation with other organizations, to originate and disseminate educational material in the form of posters, books, bulletins, charts, slides, and insignia. Through its "Knighthood of Youth" it provides homes, schools and church schools with a method of character training through actual practice. Officers: Dr. John H. Finley, Pres.; Charles F. Powlison, Gen. Sec'y.

THE NATIONAL COMMITTEE FOR MENTAL HYGIENE, INC.—Dr. William H. Welch, honorary president; Dr. Charles P. Emerson, president; Dr. Frankwood E. Williams, medical director; Dr. Clarence J. D'Alton, executive assistant; Clifford W. Beers, secretary; 370 Seventh Avenue, New York City. Pamphlets on mental hygiene, mental and nervous disorders, feeblemindedness, epilepsy, inebriety, delinquency, and other mental problems in human behavior, education, industry, psychiatric social service, etc. "Mental Hygiene," quarterly, $3.00 a year; "Mental Hygiene Bulletin," monthly. $.50 a year.

NATIONAL COMMITTEE FOR THE PREVENTION OF BLINDNESS—Lewis H. Carris, managing director; Mrs. Winifred Hathaway, associate director; Dr. B. Franklin Royer, medical director, and Miss Eleanor P. Brown, secretary; 370 Seventh Ave., New York. Objects: To furnish information, exhibits, lantern slides, lectures, personal service for local organizations and legislation, publish literature of movement—samples free, quantities at cost. Includes New York State Committee.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK—John A. Lapp, president, Chicago, Ill.; Howard R. Knight, secretary, 277 E. Long St., Columbus, Ohio. The conference is an organization to discuss the principles of humanitarian effort and to increase the efficiency of social service agencies. Each year it holds an annual meeting, publishes in permanent form the Proceedings of the meeting and issues a quarterly Bulletin. The fifty-fourth annual meeting of the Conference will be held in Des Moines, Iowa, May 11-18, 1927. Proceedings are sent free of charge to all members upon payment of a membership fee of five dollars.

NATIONAL CONGRESS OF PARENTS AND TEACHERS—Mrs. A. H. Reeve, President, Mrs. A. C. Watkins, Executive Secretary, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C. To develop cooperation between home and school, and an informed public opinion which will secure highest advantages for all children.

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WORKERS' EDUCATION BUREAU OF AMERICA—a cooperative Educational Agency for the promotion of Adult Education among Industrial Workers. 476 West 24th Street, New York City. Spencer Miller, Jr., Secretary.

THE SLUM ENDURES

(*Continued from page* 799)

tail-end use of a dwelling. The slum lingers so long as the buildings composing it have residential utility. It has a natural origin, but its passing is less so. It evolves with other parts of the city and is really a consequence of progress. Note Prairie Avenue in Chicago. It skidded in one generation from the matrons to the madams. Once it was exclusive to a fault and jealous of its prestige. Now the city blushes at mention of its name. This precipitous descent of the social scale came when successive waves of people, each of lesser status than previous occupants, had swept over it. This is the old story and examples can be found in every city.

In the light of experience it would not be difficult to predict the fate of any residence quarter in New York. Take a single family hotel, up-to-date in every respect. In a year it will be twelve months out of date. It will lack some of the later improvements and to that extent be handicapped in competition with the new buildings. In five years it will not only be so much older but five years behind the times. In ten years it will be even less in demand, while in twenty years we should not be surprised to find that the so-called best people had migrated to other parts. Perhaps even the second and third best would not be attracted. That has been substantially the way apartments built twenty years ago have been faring. Where it is quite the proper thing to move with the changing of the seasons or every year, the turnover of apartment dwellers in two decades is enormous. This kind of moving is generally up the social and economic scale. The house is little more than a relay station used temporarily while the people make their way from lower to higher levels. The house declines in perfect pace with the decline in types of occupants.

This pursuit of status on the part of city dwellers, this press from the East Side to the Bronx and from the Bronx to the suburbs, insures no area of the city against the havoc of change. The object of housing schemes, city planning and zoning is to control and direct the course of change. These are devices for courting the kind of change that is desired and to discourage the embarrassing change. The slum is not wanted but the slum comes anyway because it fits so well into all else that goes to make the city. It appears because it is the dying aspect of city building, as natural as any other form of death. It is an interim between two cycles of life.

A renewal of life is manifest in at least two noteworthy sections of New York. The first is Yorkville on the East Side of Manhattan between Seventy-second and Eighty-sixth Streets where the bottom was all but reached for residence purposes. It had run the usual gauntlet of population successions. Now it is entering a second cycle. One after another the walk-up cold-water flats are being destroyed to make way for expensive one-, two-, and three-bath elevator apartment buildings. The remaining part of Yorkville serves as the habitation area of maids, butlers, chauffeurs and other servants for the invading classes of higher status. The second area is the Washington Square section where low-priced tenements are rapidly yielding to select and high-priced apartments. With ordinary wear and tear these will be slum dwellings in another generation. Without great risk one could predict that eventually even the East Side will experience such a normal structural re-birth. More frequently than this renascence for residence the slum is displaced by commercial and industrial occupations. Only in the most accessible places are new dwellings erected.

In any case the use of space is a transient and incidental fact in the cyclic processes of urban growth. It comes and goes with the changing demands for the use of space and man has very little to do about it. How can he, by taking thought, control such phenomena as rents and land values or alter the natural setting? Yet how they dominate him! Whether he builds a city in Egypt or Rome or the United States, forces over which he has very little control conspire to direct the building. His modern city may be more complex, but all the parts and passions of the ancient city are there. The slum remains one of those incidental parts.

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NATIONAL URBAN LEAGUE CONFERENCE: St. Louis, Mo. Mar. 30-Apr. 1. Secretary, Eugene K. Jones, 127 E. 23rd St., New York City, N. Y.

BIENNIAL CONFERENCE—AMERICAN ASSOCIATION UNIVERSITY WOMEN: Washington, D. C. Mar. 31-Apr. 2. Secretary, Eleanore Boswell, 1634 I St. N.W., Washington, D. C.

KANSAS HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION: Topeka. April 1-2. Secretary, Miss Sybil Woodruff, University of Kansas, Lawrence.

ALABAMA CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Gadsen. Apr. 3-6. Secretary, Richard F. Hudson, Alabama Tuberculosis Assn., 1006 First National Bank Bldg., Birmingham.

ARIZONA STATE NURSES ASSOCIATION: Globe. April 4-5. Secretary, Mrs. Regina Hardy, 1020 Highland Ave., Tucson.

INDIANA HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION: Terre Haute. April 8-9. Secretary, Miss Mary Edwards, Crawfordsville.

CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA—NEW ENGLAND REGIONAL CONFERENCE: Boston, Mass. Apr. 13-14. Charge of arrangements, Mr. Cheney C. Jones. 161 S. Huntington Ave., Boston, Mass.

AMERICAN PHYSICAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION: Des Moines, Iowa. April 13-16. Charge of arrangements, Miss Margaret A. McKee, Board of Education, Des Moines, Ia.

GEORGIA HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION: Macon. April 15-16. Secretary, Miss Louise Whitehurst, 302 Victory Drive, Savannah.

MASSACHUSETTS HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION: Springfield. April 16. President, Miss Amy M. Fackt, 264 Boylston St., Boston.

DELAWARE CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Wilmington. April 21. Charge of arrangements, Mrs. Emma Jackson, Delaware Industrial School for Girls, Claymont.

OHIO STATE NURSES ASSOCIATION: Dayton. April 19-22. Secretary, Mrs. Elizabeth P. August, 215 Hartman Theatre Bldg., Columbus.

TENNESSEE CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Nashville. April 20-22. Secretary, William C. Headrick, Memorial Bldg., Nashville.

ARKANSAS CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Little Rock. April 20-23. Secretary, Charles Wickard, Jr., 414 W. 2nd St., Little Rock.

CONNECTICUT CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Hartford. April 24-26. Secretary, Miss Margaret F. Byington, 36 Trumbull St., Hartford.

PITTSBURGH GIRLS CONFERENCE: Pittsburgh. April 25-27. Charge of arrangements, Miss Helen Harris, Kingsley House, Pittsburgh.

RELIGIOUS EDUCATION ASSOCIATION: Chicago. April 26-29. Secretary, Laird, T. Hites, 308 N. Michigan Ave., Chicago.

NEW ENGLAND DIVISION-AMERICAN NURSES ASSOCIATION: Providence. April 27-29. Secretary, Miss Edith Barnard, 425 Broadway, Providence.

MISSISSIPPI HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION: Jackson. April 27-29. Secretary, Miss Mary Wilson, Mississippi State College, Columbus.

MID-ATLANTIC NURSES ASSOCIATION: New York City. April 28-29. Secretary, Miss A. S. Gilman, State Education Bldg., Albany, N. Y.

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Harmon-Survey Awards in Public Education

First Prize, $250, Foot Hills, by Beulah Weldon, New York City.

Second Prize, $100, Commentaries on an Educational Adventure in a Public High School, by the Adventurers, Teachers and Pupils: Lucy L. W. Wilson, Principal, South Philadelphia High School for Girls, Philadelphia; Ruth Wanger, History; M. Louise Nichols, Science; Olive Ely Hart, English; Anna Besses, Rosaline Childs, Esther Gimpel, Anne Grolnic, Sylvia Kline, Caroline Kramer, Pauline Mansky, Pearl Markowitz, Ida Mockrin, Sara Needleman, Helen Smolen, Annabelle Stack, Pupils.

Third Prize, $50, Opportunity Schools, by Mabel Montgomery, Marion, S. C.

Honorable Mention: Some Experiences of the First Woman on the School Board in a Southern Community, by Elizabeth Fondé, Mobile, Ala.; A New Approach to School Adjustment, by Agnes M. Conklin, Brooklyn, N. Y.

THREE accounts of the "new" education affording new opportunity, new freedom, new joy and satisfaction for twenty-four country children, for a group of city high school girls, for hundreds of southern factory workers, have been awarded the three prizes in the third quarterly Harmon-Survey Award for "some adventure, invention or achievement in the field of public education."

BEULAH WELDON, writer of the first prize story, is a graduate of Barnard College. She, with her friend, Emma Burgess, R.N., went to a tiny mountain school which had been closed for two years, lived in a cabin that "smelled of pine wood," kept their food "in a cave in the hillside," carried their water from a "spring coming out of the rock and flowing through a bark trough," and as teacher and public health nurse lived for six years in the isolated community. When they came, half the guests at school entertainments refused programs with the comment, "Can't read." The twenty-four pupils could be graded only "in two groups, those that had been in school and those that had not." There was a deep-seated belief that "God sent tuberculosis and that it was useless to expect to recover." When they left—but the account of how the "free" school "up the creek" brought "light in the foot-hills," to which the judges awarded the first prize by an almost unanimous vote, is to be published in an early issue of Survey Graphic.

LUCY L. W. WILSON, principal of the "Daltonized" South Philadelphia High School for Girls, a believer in "free" education within the public school system, was instrumental in launching the educational adventure which she and the teachers and pupils who carried it on describe in the second-prize story. There is the stir of new and splendid possibilities in this year's study of world peace, a "co-operative assignment for a superior group of seniors," cutting across departmental lines in science, English and history in "a large, overcrowded, poorly equipped high school," where three-fourths of the pupils in their own homes have old world language, customs and traditions.

IN her account of South Carolina's "opportunity schools," Mabel Montgomery tells how church and state are uniting in a uniquely successful attempt to cut down illiteracy in the South.

ONE hundred and thirty-one manuscripts, from forty states, were submitted, picturing the new stirrings in public education throughout the country—sixth-graders building Babylon in their sand-table as they take a first long look at the pageant of human history; a room where non-English speaking boys and girls learn our language and our customs without humiliation or loss of time; a Negro teacher building a rural school-house with his own hands and re-making a rural community as he does it; a puppet theatre at a New Jersey cross-roads; creative dancing as a university major—from such "adventures, inventions and achievements" one may look for new meaning and new color and clearer understanding in our American life.

THE contest judges, to whom the Harmon Foundation and The Survey make grateful acknowledgment of their effective service, were:

John H. Finley, formerly New York state commissioner of education, now editor of The New York Times.

Glenn Frank, president of the University of Wisconsin; formerly editor of The Century Magazine.

Joseph K. Hart, associate editor of The Survey; formerly professor of education at the University of Washington and at Reed College.

Henry R. Linville, president of the Teachers' Union, New York.

Lucy Sprague Mitchell, chairman of the Bureau of Educational Experiments, New York.

Nathaniel M. Salley, dean of the School of Education, Florida State College for Women.

Will C. Wood, state superintendent of Public Instruction, Calif.

Mary E. Woolley, president of Mount Holyoke College; chairman of the College Entrance Examination Board.

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Subject: What is New and True in Social Work?

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	Third Award	$ 50

All articles must be delivered to The Survey Office by noon, March 31, 1927.

Details on the back cover of The Survey of February 15. Or write to Secretary of Jury, Harmon-Survey Award, c. o. The Survey, 112 East 19 Street, New York.

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